AN ELEMENTARY

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

By R. G. LATHAM, M. D., F. R. S.,

LATE FELLOW OF KING'S COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

REVISED EDITION.

CAMBRIDGE:

PUBLISHED BY JOHN BARTLETT,

Bookseller to the University.

1852.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1851, by
JOHN BARTLETT,
in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the District of Massachusetts.

Page 69, § 124. *Other words, which form their plural like* loaf, *are* knife, sheaf, staff, thief; *also,* elf, self, shelf, wolf, *which are exceptions to the rule on p.* 70, *since their vowel is short.* Wharf, *like* dwarf, *retains the sharp* f; *but in the United States the common plural of this word is* wharves, *formed according to the analogy of* loaf. Belief *and* reef, *and perhaps* strife *and* waif, *are also properly exceptions to the rule on p.* 70.

Page 170. *Omit* § 355. 4. *As* itself *occurs in the English Bible, and* its *does not, there can be no doubt that the word is compounded of* it *and* self. (N. A. Review, No. CLIII. p. 325.)

ADVERTISEMENT

TO THE REVISED EDITION.

───────

This book is in the main a reprint of the English edition of Latham's Grammar, with some additions and corrections from other works by the same author. The Historical Introduction has been enlarged by the insertion of several pages from Latham's " History and Etymology of the English Language for Classical Schools," and the book has been made to conform throughout to the author's latest views as given in the third edition of his large work on the English Language. As the sheets have passed through the press some verbal errors have been silently corrected, but only in a single instance has any change requiring notice been made in the body of the work ; namely, in the lists of the Strong Verbs.

There are some views and statements in this Grammar, particularly in the vocal system, which are open to objection. But as this book professes to be substantially a reprint, radical changes in the original were of course inadmissible. It should be observed, moreover, that, where Latham fails to give satisfaction, no other grammarian has succeeded on the whole better than he.

The Conjugation of the Verb is one of the most difficult points in English Etymology. In this book a positive inflectional form is virtually taken for the ground of distinction in voices and tenses. If this principle were consistently carried out with the moods, we should have two moods in the substantive verb and one in all others. The author has, how-

ever, thought it advisable in this elementary work to admit the four usual moods, and has based them upon definitions.

It has been forcibly urged by several writers,* that although the English verb is to a great degree destitute of inflections, yet the combination of the simple form of the verb with certain other verbs, which abandon their proper meaning to serve in the capacity of auxiliaries, affords as just a ground for the distinctions of voice, mood, and tense as positive inflections can do. This function of the auxiliary verbs, so far as it is exhibited at all in the present work, is explained in the Syntax.

The idea is certainly philosophical, and it is to be hoped that the theory of the English Conjugation will be completed upon this principle, and be put into a fit shape for elementary works. Until this shall be done, it is best, perhaps, that conjugation should be based upon positive inflections.

Dr. Latham's works have been fully appreciated in England, but they have not yet made their way into the schools of America. What distinguishes this Grammar from others — besides its brevity, simplicity, and clearness — is, that it proceeds throughout on the basis of history and comparative philology. The author having explained his views of the study of grammar in general, and of the proper method of studying this book in particular, much need not be added on that head. The book is not adapted for the lower classes of our grammar schools, but is perfectly level to the comprehension of the higher classes. The occasional apparition of a Saxon word, or of an illustration from some other language, is a bugbear that will soon cease to alarm children of ordinary intelligence. Certain sections (particularly of Part II.) may very well be omitted on a first study, or altogether, according to circumstances.

F. J. C.

HARVARD COLLEGE, *Dec.* 15, 1851.

---

* See Mr. Smart's "Principles of English Grammar," a work abounding in valuable remarks, and, above all, an excellent article in the North American Review, No CLIII.

PREFACE

TO THE SECOND EDITION.

A PASSAGE from the Preface to Professor De Morgan's "Elements of Arithmetic" so completely represents my own views upon the character of the following work, that, instead of making any original remark of my own, I transfer it. It is only necessary to substitute the word *Grammar* for *Arithmetic*, and the application of the extract becomes exact.

"Since the publication of the first edition of this work, though its sale has sufficiently convinced me that there exists a disposition to introduce the *principles* of Arithmetic into schools, as well as the *practice*, I have often heard it remarked that it was a hard book for children. I never dared to suppose it would be otherwise. All who have been engaged in the education of youth are aware that it is a hard thing to make them think; so hard, indeed, that masters had, till within the last few years, almost universally abandoned the attempt, and taught them rules instead of principles, — by authority instead of demonstration. This system is now passing away, and many preceptors may be found who are of opinion that, whatever may be the additional trouble to themselves, their pupils should always be induced to reflect upon, and know the reason for, what they are doing. Such I would advise not to be discouraged by the failure of a first attempt to make the learner understand the principle of a

rule. It is no exaggeration to say, that, under the present system, five years of a boy's life are partially spent in merely learning the *rules* contained in this treatise, and those for the most part in so imperfect a way, that he is not fit to en-counter any question unless he sees the head of the book under which it falls. On a very moderate computation of the time thus bestowed, the pupil would be in no respect worse off, though he spent five hours on every page of this work."

Now I am not only prepared to admit, that what is learned from the following pages will probably be learned slowly, but I recommend that it should be so learned. On the other hand, however, I insist upon the certainty that, when the book has once been mastered, the student will have been brought sufficiently far in Philology to find all that comes afterwards easy beyond expectation. He will have as much Logic as explains the structure of propositions, and that is *nearly* as much as is wanted at all for philological purposes, and a great deal more than is at present known generally. He will also have the elements of Philological Classifica-tion; inasmuch as, having learned from practice the value of such a division in language as the one which comprises the English, Dutch, German, and Scandinavian languages, he will find no trouble in understanding the higher groups, called Indo-European, Semitic, &c. Lastly, he will have compared the inflected character of the Anglo-Saxon stage of our own language with the uninflected structure of the present English, and have done something in observing the transition from the one state to the other. This prepares him for an historical view of language in its broadest form. What he has learned with difficulty concerning the relations between the English and Anglo-Saxon, he will perceive at once in a comparison between either the Latin and Italian, or between any other ancient tongue and its modern deriv-ative. Hence, those who mean to go further into the studies of Grammar and Etymology are prepared for their researches

by a preliminary discipline; and it is believed that this discipline is sufficient to carry them to some distance beyond the threshold of even the highest works on those subjects. Such, at least, is the aim of the present writer, who has enlarged upon these points, solely for the sake of showing that slow steps in the beginning may lead to a rapid progress in the conclusion of a study.

With those, however, who are satisfied with simply learning what is called the grammar of their mother-tongue, and who merely require the rules for speaking English correctly, the previous statements are insufficient. Such readers are neither learning special Grammar nor Philology in general. They are simply studying English; and they wish to study it as quickly and as easily as possible. To them I would submit, that, under the usual course of English, they learn either too much or too little. If they merely mean to speak and write with average correctness, they can get what they want without any grammar at all; viz. by attending to the language of the best sort of their acquaintance, and by applying to some good authority in doubtful cases. If, on the other hand, they are desirous of either knowing the history, or of reasoning on the principles of the English language, their usual studies are insufficient; no amount of rules will teach either the one or the other.

I have no hesitation in asserting, that, out of every hundred statements made by the current writers on the English language, ninety-nine come under one of the two following predicaments: they either contain that which is incorrect, and better not known at all, or something that was known before, and would have been known independent of any grammatical lesson whatever.

Whether an historical and grammatical knowledge of a man's mother-tongue (in other words, the *theory* of it) be worth superadding to a mere practical power of using it with average correctness for the purposes of writing and speak-

ing, is a point upon which I abstain from an opinion. I am only certain that such knowledge is not to be won without an effort, or, to speak more specifically, without the exertion of the understanding as well as the exercise of the memory.

UPPER SOUTHWICK STREET,
    April 25, 1847.

PREFACE

TO THE FIRST EDITION.

———

The following pages are laid before the public with the view of supplying beginners in Grammar with information more in accordance with the present state of learning than that which is afforded by the grammars currently in use. Of these, each and all have the same merits and the same defects. In the matter of Syntax they are the least faulty; although even in this department they err, at times, most grievously. Notwithstanding this, the strong sense that characterizes the reasoning of Cobbett affords an intellectual exercise, even where the facts upon which it works are wrong ; whilst the copiousness of illustration in Lindley Murray has its value as *exercises and in the way of practice*. Here, however, the praise of the usual grammarians ends. What they teach in the way of Etymology, what they exhibit as constituting the structure of language, and what they indicate as the general principles of language, are matters that they supply only for the sake of being unlearned when the researches of the student become extended. No person conversant with modern philology will consider this statement as overcharged.

What the following pages profess to exhibit is referrible to two heads : firstly, the special details of the structure of the English language ; secondly, certain facts and reasonings in general grammar. These latter points are

incorporated with the former, for the following reasons.
It is not from the grammars either of classical languages
or from those of any foreign tongue, that the first knowl-
edge of the general principles of Grammar is best derived;
although such is a current, if not a universal, opinion.
We best learn the theory of a language when we study
it independently of the practice. We may see this by ask-
ing whether the meaning of words like Case, Concord, Gov-
ernment, Noun, &c., is best collected from the grammar
of a known or an unknown language. In the latter case,
the attention is divided between the general principles of
grammar, common to all languages, and the special details
of the particular language in question. In the former case,
the familiarity with the details leaves the attention undivided
for the comprehension of general principles. Whatever be
the country of the student, the analysis of his native tongue
is best practised in general grammar.

Having indicated the mixed character of my work, I wish
to state with what views I would have it judged. There
is much in Grammar that is indeterminate. Most of the
terms are unsettled, and many of the definitions have yet
to be agreed upon. Such being the case, an author has a
choice between two modes of proceeding. He may either
lay down his assertions peremptorily, demanding an acqui-
escence in his authority; or he may, by full and sufficient
trains of reasoning upon each doubtful term and upon each
unrecognized generalization, exhaust the subject, and convince
his reader. To have taken up the former plan would have
been opposite to the purpose of the author, whose intention
it was that the character of his book should be *disciplinal;* to
have ventured upon the latter would have extended the work
to an indefinite length. Between these two methods, how-
ever, there was an intermediate one. In the first place, the
present is no independent work, but an elementary form of a
fuller and more critical volume; in which volume definitions
are fixed and doubts discussed. In the next place, the pre-

tensions of the book are limited. There are a vast number of questions in respect not only to points of general grammar, but even in respect to special facts in the English language, to which no categorical answer in the present state of philology can be given; to such questions as, *How many cases? How many parts of speech? How many irregular verbs* are there in English? no cautious grammarian would venture an unqualified answer. The reply depends upon the definition of the words *case, parts of speech*, and *irregular;* and, in respect to these, it will be long before there is full unanimity. The present book will not enable the student to give off-hand answers on doubtful points. It will, however, present him with new and numerous facts, and habituate him to the reasoning upon them.

For what precise age of the student any work of instruction may be designed, is in few departments of knowledge easy to be accurately determined. A book addressed to the understanding should be taken up a few years later than one addressed more particularly to the memory. It is considered by the author that the same degree of attention, the same effort of thought, that *understands* the first principles of arithmetic and geometry, will also understand the subject-matter of the present volume. This, it is conceived, recommends the work in question to the middle and higher, but not to the lower parts of schools.

The amount of preliminary knowledge on other subjects required for the study of the work in question is ascertained more easily. It can be wholly mastered independent of any knowledge either of the classical languages or of Logic.

During the perusal of the first part, the student should have before him, and continually refer to, a map of Germany and Northern Europe. A sufficient knowledge of the general history is presumed; since it cannot be said that, in expecting a knowledge of what is meant by such terms as the Norman Conquest, we look for too much on the part of the learner. The words quoted from the Anglo-Saxon

should be *written* down, and the parts wherein they differ from the English should be carefully marked by means of *underlining*. The pronunciation is a secondary affair.

In Part II. the assistance of the teacher will be most wanted. The description of a sound is difficult; so that he should be prepared to exhibit the nature of our elementary sounds orally, and to make the pupil repeat after him until his familiarity with the properties of the different sounds become perfect. (See §§ 42, 43, 45.) From Part II. the student may proceed to the Prosody (Part V.), since by so doing he completes his familiarity with those points of grammar which are so essential and elementary as accent and quantity.

Of Part III. the first fifteen sections should be studied slowly and repeatedly, since upon his familiarity with these will depend the clearness of the student's views respecting the nature and number of the parts of speech, and his appreciation of the rules of Syntax. In the remainder of Part III. free use must be made of the pen, and all foreign words that are quoted in illustration of an English one must, as before, be written down. The sections upon Composition and Derivation (§§ 274 – 311) may be omitted in the first reading.

Before entering upon the Syntax (Part IV.) the Etymology should be gone through twice, and the sections explanatory of the structure of propositions more than twice.

Such seems to the author the amount of time and attention requisite to obtain clear ideas in general grammar, and a knowledge in detail of the structure of the English language. Upon these points, where the attempt at explanation and illustration is most visible, such time and attention should more especially be bestowed. A few fundamental points familiarly understood serve as a key to the rest. What these are the teacher will collect from the degree to which the exposition of them is extended. Amongst others, it may be necessary to indicate §§ 45, 46, 54, 82, 88 – 102.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE,
    July 20th, 1843.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

§ 1. *Distribution of the English Language over the British Isles.* — With the exception of a few places on the frontier of Wales, the English language is spoken exclusively throughout all the counties of England.

§ 2. It is spoken in Wales, *partially;* that is, in the Principality of Wales there are two languages, viz. the English, and the Welsh as well.

§ 3. It is also spoken in Scotland, *partially;* that is, in the northern and western counties of Scotland there are two languages, the English, and a language called the *Scotch* Gaelic as well.

§ 4. It is also spoken in Ireland, *partially;* that is, in several of the counties of Ireland there are two languages, the English, and a language called the *Irish* Gaelic as well.

§ 5. It is also spoken in the Isle of Man, *partially;* that is, in the Isle of Man there are two languages, the English, and a language called the Manx as well.

1

§ 6. Finally, it is spoken in the United States of America, in Canada, in Australia, and, more or less, in all the English colonies and dependencies.

Extension of the English Language over different and distant Countries. — The extension of the English language *beyond* the British Isles is a recent event, when compared with its extension *over* the British Isles in the early periods of our history. Indeed, the former has taken place almost entirely since the reign of Queen Elizabeth. It was then that the first English colony, that of Virginia, was planted in North America; and it was only natural that the emigrants who left England should take their language with them. Upon the shores of America it came in contact and collision with the numerous dialects of the native Indians; and upon these it encroached, just as, a thousand years before, it had encroached upon the original British of Britain. Numerous languages then disappeared entirely, and, at the same time, the tribes who spoke them. Sometimes they were wholly exterminated; sometimes they were driven far into the interior of the land. In a short time, populous cities stood upon the hunting-grounds of the expelled tribes, and the language of the mother country became naturalized in a New World. The subsequent settlement of Maryland, Georgia, and the remaining States of America completed the preponderance of the English language from the boundaries of Canada to the Gulf of Mexico.

During the Protectorate of Cromwell, the island of Jamaica was taken from the Spaniards, and from that time forwards the English has been the language of a

greater part of the West Indian Islands. Here, also, it gradually displaced the dialects of the native Indians.

In Canada, it first took root after the taking of Quebec by General Wolfe, in the reign of George the Second. As Canada, however, had been previously a French colony, the European language that was first spoken there was not the English, but the French. Hence, when Quebec was taken, the language of the country fell into two divisions. There were the different dialects of the original Indians, and there was the French of the first European colonists. At the present moment, both these languages maintain their ground; so that the English is spoken only partially in Canada, the French and the Indian existing by the side of it.

At the Cape of Good Hope the English is spoken in a similar manner; that is, it is spoken partially. The original inhabitants were the Caffre and Hottentot tribes of Africa, and the earliest European colonists were the Dutch. For these reasons, Dutch and English, conjointly with the Hottentot and Caffrarian dialects, form the language of the Cape of Good Hope. In Guiana, too, in South America, English and Dutch are spoken in the neighborhood of each other, for the same reason as at the Cape.

In Asia the English language is spoken in India; but there the original languages of the country are spoken to far greater extent than is the case in either America or Africa.

Australia and New Zealand are exclusively English colonies, and, consequently, in Australia and New Zealand English is the only *European* language that is

spoken. In each of these settlements it encroaches upon the native dialects.

Malta, Gibraltar, Heligoland, Guernsey, and Jersey, and many other localities of less note, are isolated spots, which, being portions of the English dominions, use the English language.

§ 7. *Extension of the English Language over the British Isles.* — As late as the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and even later, the English language was not spoken universally and exclusively even in England. A second language was spoken in Cornwall, called the Cornish.

§ 8. As late as the reign of King Stephen, a language very closely resembling the Welsh was spoken in Cumberland and Westmoreland.

§ 9. In the first, second, and third centuries, the English language was either not spoken in Great Britain at all, or spoken very partially indeed.

A little consideration will show that the extension of the English language over the different English counties, and over the British Isles in general, was carried on in the same way as the extension of the English language over countries like America, Australia, and New Zealand. In America, Australia, and New Zealand there were the original native languages, originally spoken by the original inhabitants. There was just the same in England.

In America, Australia, and New Zealand the native languages still continue to be spoken, side by side with the English, although only partially. It is just the same in Wales, Scotland, Ireland, and the Isle of Man. In all these portions of the British Isles, the native lan-

guages still continue. They are encroached upon by the English; still, however, they continue. By observing this, we understand the important fact, that, even in *England*, the *English* language is no native tongue, but an imported one; whereas the really native languages of Great Britain were languages allied to the present Welsh, Gaelic, and Manx. These, however, as the English dialects gradually extended themselves, gradually retreated.

§ 10. It is commonly stated that the particular part of the continent of Europe, from which the English language was introduced into England, is that tract which extends along the sea-coast from the peninsula of Jutland in the kingdom of Denmark, to the mouth of the Rhine in Holland. But a more critical examination of the subject makes it probable that the part of Europe from which the language came into England coincides nearly with the present kingdom of Hanover.

§ 11. *Accredited Details of the Different Immigrations from Germany into Britain.* — Until lately the details of the different Germanic invasions of England, both in respect to the particular tribes by which they were made, and the order in which they succeeded each other, were received with but little doubt, and as little criticism.

Respecting the tribes by which they were made, the current opinion was, that they were chiefly, if not exclusively, those of the *Jutes*, the *Saxons*, and the *Angles*.

The invasions are said to have been as follows : —

§ 12. *First Settlement of Invaders from Germany.* — In the year 449 A. D. the invaders from Northern Germany made the first permanent settlement in Britain.

Ebbsfleet, in the Isle of Thanet, was the spot where they landed; and the particular name that these tribes gave themselves was that of *Jutes*.   Their leaders were Hengist and Horsa.   Six years after their landing they had established the kingdom of Kent; so that the county of Kent was the first district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Germany.

§ 13. *Second Settlement of Invaders from Germany.*—In the year 477 A. D. invaders from Northern Germany made the second permanent settlement in Britain. The coast of Sussex was the spot whereon they landed. The particular name that these tribes gave themselves was that of *Saxons*.   Their leader was Ella.   They established the kingdom of the South Saxons (Sussex); so that the county of Sussex was the second district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 14. *Third Settlement of Invaders from Germany.*—In the year 495 A. D. invaders from Northern Germany made the third permanent settlement in Britain. The coast of Hampshire was the spot whereon they landed.   Like the invaders last mentioned, these tribes were Saxons.   Their leader was Cerdic.   They established the kingdom of the West Saxons (Wessex); so that the county of Hants was the third district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 15. *Fourth Settlement of Invaders from Germany.*—A. D. 530, certain Saxons landed in Essex; so that

the county of Essex was the fourth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 16. *Fifth Settlement of Invaders from Germany.* — These were *Angles* in Norfolk and Suffolk. This settlement, of which the precise date is not known, took place during the reign of Cerdic in Wessex. The fifth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English was the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk; the particular dialect introduced being that of the *Angles*.

§ 17. *Sixth Settlement of Invaders from Germany.* — In the year 547 A. D. invaders from Northern Germany made the sixth permanent settlement in Britain. The southeastern counties of Scotland, between the rivers Tweed and Forth, were the districts where they landed. They were of the tribe of the Angles, and their leader was Ida. The southeastern parts of Scotland constituted the sixth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 18. Unfortunately, the evidence on which the details just given rest is traditional, not historical. The chief authority for these events is Bede, a historian who wrote more than three hundred years after the supposed landing of Hengist and Horsa. Some of the incidents purporting to have taken place in the course of the various invasions are evidently fictitious, and such as belong to those epic traditions upon which the early history of such nations is founded.

Further, there is reason to think that there were Ger-

mans in Britain long before the invasion of Hengist and
Horsa.

Further, there is reason to doubt that Jutes had any
real place among the Germanic invaders of England.

§ 19. Now, as one of the tribes that invaded Eng-
land from the coast of Germany called itself the *Saxons*,
the language thus introduced was for some time called
the *Saxon* language ; indeed, at the present moment the
English is so called in Welsh, Manx, and Gaelic.

§ 20. As another of the tribes that invaded England
from the coast of Germany called itself the *Angles*, the
language thus introduced was for some time called the
Angle language ; indeed, it is from the particular tribe
of the *Angles* that the country has taken the name of
England.

§ 21. The death of Ecbert took place in 836, A. D.
It is believed that not long after the time of Ecbert the
different *Angle* and *Saxon* tribes had become consoli-
dated into a single people. It is also believed that
about the same time the different dialects had become
treated as a single language ; the name by which this
language is known being *Anglo-Saxon*. The Anglo-
Saxon is the mother-tongue of the present English.

The history of England, from the time of Ecbert to
the battle of Hastings, is the history of the Anglo-Saxon
language. During that time it was the language both
of the learned and unlearned, and was a written lan-
guage as well as a spoken one. Not only was it writ-
ten, but it was one of the earliest cultivated languages
of modern Europe ; so much so, that, before there was
a single line written either in French or Italian, in
Spanish or Portuguese, there was a considerable Anglo-

Saxon literature. Whilst a corrupted form of the Latin was the medium of communication through the southern half of Western Europe, the language of England was the language of legislators, annalists, and poets. So early, indeed, was the Anglo-Saxon applied to poetry, that the earliest specimens of Anglo-Saxon verse represent the manners and legends of a time previous to the introduction of Christianity, and during the time of German Paganism. Nay, more, they represent the manners and legends of a time when our ancestors belonged to Germany rather than to the island of Britain.

§ 22. *The Anglo-Saxon is the Mother-Tongue of the present English.* — Nevertheless, if we compare the present English of the nineteenth century with the Anglo-Saxon of the ninth, the following points of difference will be observed : —

1. The Anglo-Saxon language contained words that are either wanting in the present English, or, if found, used in a different sense.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
lyft	*air*	swithe	*very*
lichoma	*body*	sáre	*very*
stefn	*voice*	sith	*late*
theód	*people*	reccan	*care about*
ece	*everlasting*	ongitan	*understand*
hwæt	*sharp*	sweltan	*die*, &c.

These words, which are very numerous, although lost (or changed as to meaning) in the current English, are often preserved in the provincial dialects.

2. The present English contains words that were either wanting in the Anglo-Saxon, or, if found, used

in a different sense, — *voice*, *people*, *conjugal*, *philoso-phy*, *alchemist*, *very*, *survey*, *shawl*, and other words, to the amount of some hundreds. These have been introduced since the time of the Anglo-Saxons, from the Latin, Greek, French, Arabic, and other languages.

3. Words found in both Anglo-Saxon and English appear in different forms in the different languages.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
án	*one*	gærs	*grass*
eahta	*eight*	ic	*I*
nygon	*nine*	spræc	*speech*
endlufon	*eleven*	eáge	*eye*, &c.

4. The Anglo-Saxon contained grammatical forms that are wanting in the present English.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
tung-*ena*	*tongues*	god-*ra*	*good*
word-*a*	*words*	wi-*t*	*we two*
treow-*u*	*tree-s*	gi-*t*	*ye two*
god-*an*	*good*	hwo-*ne*	*who-m*
god-*re*	*good*	we luf-*iath*	*we love*
god-*ne*	*good*	we luf-*odon*	*we loved*
god-*es*	*good*	to luf-*ianne*	*to love*, &c.

5. The present English contains grammatical forms that were wanting in Anglo-Saxon. The words *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, *hers*, were unknown in Anglo-Saxon.

6. Grammatical forms found both in the Anglo-Saxon and the English, appear in different forms in the different languages.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
smith-*es*	*smith's*	hvá-*m*	*who-m*
smith-*as*	*smith-s*	blets-*ode*	*bless-ed*, &c.

7. Phrases and sentences were used in Anglo-Saxon which are inadmissible in the present English.

8. Phrases and sentences are used in the modern English which were inadmissible in Anglo-Saxon.

§ 23. A fresh language was introduced into England by the Norman Conquest. This may be called either *Anglo-Norman*, or *Norman-French.*

In the year 1066 A. D. Edward the Confessor died, and was succeeded by Harold, who was the last of the Anglo-Saxon kings of England. Upon the 28th of September of the same year, William, Duke of Normandy, landed at Pevensey in Sussex; and on the 18th of October was fought the decisive battle of Hastings. Now the language of William the Conqueror was by no means akin to the Anglo-Saxon; indeed, it was as different from it as the Anglo-Saxon was from the original British. And the language of his followers was the same. It was wholly foreign to England. It was a language of France, just as the Anglo-Saxon was a language of Germany; and it encroached upon the Anglo-Saxon of England just as that language, some centuries before, had encroached upon the original British.

And just as the languages or dialects akin to the Anglo-Saxon are to be sought for in Germany, so are the languages or dialects akin to the Norman to be sought for in France. The Anglo-Saxon of the followers of Hengist and Horsa resembled the modern German and Dutch. The Norman of the followers of William the Conqueror resembled the modern French.

The change effected upon the English language by the Norman Conquest was not less than the change

effected by the same event upon the property of the
country, its habits, its liberties, and its constitution;
and the results of the battle of Hastings upon the
literature of England were proportionate to the altera-
tion of our *language*. Perhaps there were not a hun-
dred men in William's army who understood the Anglo-
Saxon idiom. Even those who spoke it despised it, as
the language of a conquered nation. Now it was natu-
ral that the language of the king should be the lan-
guage of his attendants also; and hence, the great
nobles who composed his court spoke Anglo-Norman
amongst their equals, Anglo-Saxon to their servants.
The language of the nobles was the language of the
lawyers, and the language of the lawyers was the
language of the Church; so that the court, the courts
of law, and the cloisters, were equally Normanized.
Then, as a great portion of the original landholders
were dispossessed, and their estates transferred to Nor-
man barons, and as the new lords of the soil resided
on their estates, and surrounded themselves with nu-
merous retainers, the language that was spoken in the
great towns became the language, more or less, of the
country around. Without knowing the exact extent to
which the Anglo-Norman displaced the Anglo-Saxon,
we know the following particular facts : —

1. Letters even of a private nature were written
in Latin till the beginning of the reign of Edward the
First, soon after 1270, when a sudden change brought
in the use of French.

2. Conversation between the members of the Uni-
versities was ordered to be carried on either in Latin
or French.

3. The minutes of the Corporation of London, recorded in the town clerk's office, were in French, as well as the proceedings in Parliament and in the courts of justice.

4. In grammar-schools, boys were made to construe their Latin into French.

On the other hand, the Anglo-Norman of England was not *exactly* the same as the French of France. In the reign of Edward the Third, Chaucer, describing the manners of an English nun, says that "she spoke French cleverly, but as it was spoken in the school of Stratford-le-Bow, rather than as it was spoken at Paris."

> "And Frenche she spake full feteously,
> After the scole of Stratford atte Bowe,
> For French of Parys was to her unknowe."
>
> *Prologue to the Canterbury Tales.*

§ 24. From the battle of Hastings to the death of John, the language of England is called, not *Anglo-*Saxon, but *Semi*-Saxon, or *Half*-Saxon.

§ 25. From the death of John to the death of Edward the Second, the language of England is called *Old* English.

§ 26. From the death of Edward the Second to the death of Queen Mary, the language of England is called *Middle* English.

§ 27. The period of the *New*, or *Modern* English, begins with the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and is the English of the present time.

Such are the stages of the English language, which, if we look to the *English* period alone, form three divisions, named (as above) Old English, Middle English, and New English. By adding the two stages of

the Anglo-Saxon (i. e. of the Anglo-Saxon properly
so called, and of the *Semi*-Saxon), we increase the
number to five. Now the divisions thus established
are of great practical convenience in the consideration
of the history of our language. Nevertheless, it must
not be supposed that the transition from one stage to
another is by any means so sudden and definite as it
appears to be according to the preceding dates. It
cannot be believed that, *exactly* at the death of King
John, the language changed from Semi-Saxon to Old
English, or, *exactly* at the accession of Edward the
Third, from Old English to Middle. The change was
gradual. The reigns, however, of the kings are taken
for the sake of putting the epochs in question in the
form best fitted for being remembered. For the sake,
however, of explaining the real nature of the changes
of the English language, the following sketch of its
history is annexed.

The first four reigns after the Conquest were un-
favorable to the cultivation of literature *at all* ; since
the influence of the Norman-French, although sufficient
to depress the Anglo-Saxon, was not sufficient to estab-
lish a flourishing literature of its own. *Some* works
were composed in *both* languages. They were, how-
ever, in each case, both few and unimportant.

Henry the Second. — The reign of Henry the *Second*
was a favorable period for *one* of the languages of Eng-
land, viz. for the Norman-French (or Anglo-Norman).
It was also favorable for another language allied to the
Anglo-Norman, but by no means identical with it. The
river Loire, in France, forms a boundary between the
northern class of French dialects and the southern

class; the Anglo-Norman belonging to the former.
The marriage of Henry the Second with Eleanor of
Aquitaine introduced relations between England and the
southern portions of France ; whereas the influence of
the Conquest had been to create a connection with Nor-
mandy only. A fresh form of literature, in a fresh
form of the French language, followed the intercourse
between England on the one hand and the southern
portion of France on the other, whilst the name for this
language and literature was *Provençal*, — i. e. the lan-
guage and literature of Provence. Now, although this
new influence deserves to be noted, it is not to be com-
pared with the influence of either the *Anglo-Norman* or
the original *Semi-Saxon ;* still it deserves to be noted.
Hence, the Provençal was a third language applied to
the literature of the English. A fourth language was
the Latin, this being at that time, and having been pre-
viously, what it long continued, the language of the
learned throughout Europe.

12 16 *Henry the Third.* — A proclamation of Henry the
Third to the people of Huntingdonshire is generally
considered to be the first specimen of *English*, properly
so called, i. e. of English as opposed to Semi-Saxon.
Date, A. D. 1258. Still the preponderating language for
written compositions is the Norman-French (or Anglo-
Norman).

13 2 7 *Edward the Third.* — This is the reign when the
reaction of the original English against the Norman-
French began, and the time from which it steadily and
progressively increased. The father of English poetry,
Geoffrey Chaucer, wrote under Edward the Third ; so
did his contemporary Wycliffe, and others of almost

equal importance ; their predecessors, who had written in English at all, having written either in the Old English or the Semi-Saxon.

Edward the Fourth. — The reign in which printing was introduced into England by William Caxton. — By this time, the Anglo-Norman language had become almost wholly superseded by the English, remaining only as the language of a few of the courts of law. The English, however, as may be expected, has changed from the English of Chaucer, and is approaching the character of the English of the writers under Henry the Eighth. In South Britain no poetical successor worthy of comparison with Chaucer has appeared. In Scotland, however, there is the dawning of a bright period, — the reign of James the Fourth.

Henry the Eighth. — The establishment of the Protestant religion, and the revival of classical learning, are the two great influences in the reign of Henry the Eighth ; the effects of both upon the style of our writers and the language itself being beneficial. The works of Sir Thomas More, and the earliest translations of the Bible, are the chief instances of the now rapidly increasing English literature. The great *Scotch* poet of this time is Dunbar.

Elizabeth. — During the long reign of Queen Elizabeth the language underwent considerable change, and the early Elizabethan writers are much less like the writers of the present century than the later ones. Indeed, what is called the age of Queen Elizabeth comprises the reign of James the First, and part of that of Charles the First. This is the age of Shakespeare and his contemporary dramatists. It is also the time when

the present translation of the Bible was made. The extent to which the English of the time in question is marked by peculiar indications of antiquity is generally known ; so that the present general sketch of the history of the English language ends with the death of James the First.

§ 28. What has just preceded is an exhibition of the *stages* of the English language ; through which it passed between the period of the Anglo-Saxons and the present day. Beyond this, it is necessary to be informed concerning certain languages of Germany and the North of Europe, to which the Anglo-Saxon, the mother-tongue of the present English, is allied.

§ 29. *Old Saxon.* — The language spoken in the present province of Westphalia, and in the districts about Cleves, Essen, and Munster, was closely akin to the Anglo-Saxon. This language is called the Old Saxon.

§ 30. *Old Frisian.* — This was the language of the present province of Friesland, and of the parts north and south of that district. The Old Frisian is closely allied to the Anglo-Saxon, and stands in the same relation to the modern Dutch, spoken in Holland, as the Anglo-Saxon does to the English.

§ 31. *Old High German.* — By tracing towards their sources the rivers Rhine, Maine, and Neckar, we come to the tracts of country over which another language akin to the Anglo-Saxon was spoken ; namely, Bavaria, Alsatia, parts of Lorraine, and of Switzerland, Suabia, and Franconia. This language is the mother-tongue of the present German. Constance, Strasburg, St. Gall, Worms, Spires, Mentz, Würzburg, and Fulda, may be

noted as cities where the Old High German was especially cultivated.

§ 32. *Mœso-Gothic.* — By following the course of the Danube we reach the Roman province of Mœsia. The *earliest* inhabitants of this province were not akin to any of the tribes of Germany, any more than the original Britons of England were akin to the Anglo-Saxon invaders. However, in the second century of the Christian era, the province of Mœsia was possessed by tribes from the northeastern parts of Germany. These were called Goths, or, more specifically, the Goths of Mœsia. Their language is called Mœso-Gothic.

The earliest written works that occur, either in the Anglo-Saxon or the languages allied to it, are Mœso-Gothic. Parts of a translation of the Gospels, written by a Mœso-Gothic bishop of the name of Ulphilas in the fourth century, are still extant, and are of great importance in illustrating the Anglo-Saxon and the allied languages.

§ 33. *Old Norse.* — Languages akin to the Anglo-Saxon were spoken not only over Germany, but also over Denmark, over Sweden, over Norway, and over the distant island of Iceland. The languages of these countries, when spoken of collectively, and in their earliest stage, were called the Old Norse. By Old Norse (or Northern) is meant the mother-tongue of the present Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic, and also of the language of the Faroe Isles.

§ 34. Such are the languages from which the modern languages of Germany, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Iceland are descended, just as the Eng-

lish is descended from the Anglo-Saxon. As these languages were akin to the Anglo-Saxon, so are the modern languages derived from them akin to the English.

In this manner the languages just mentioned, both ancient and modern, constitute what is called one great *stock* of languages, which stock is named the GOTHIC stock.

PART II.

THE SOUNDS, LETTERS, AND ACCENTS.

§ 35. The simple elementary sounds in the present English are as follows : —

1. The sound of the letter *a* in *ah*, *father*, &c.

2. The sound of the letter *a* in *fate*, *bate*, *ale*, *pale*, *bait*, *ail*, *snake*, *snail*, &c.

3. The sound of the letter *a* in *fat*, *pat*, *bat*, *that*, *hat*, *patting*, &c. All these three sounds are varieties of one and the same original sound. They are generally expressed in spelling by the letter *a*.

4. The sound of the *e* in *bed*, *beck*, *less*, *net*, *netting*, &c. This is a short, quick sound. It is generally expressed by the letter *e*.

5. The sound of the *e* in *feet*, *need*, *seed*, *seek*, *leak*, *seat*, *beat*, &c. This sound is often considered as allied to the preceding one, and as being merely a lengthened variety of it. It is the opinion of the best writers on the subject that it is the lengthened form of the vowel sound next about to be mentioned.

6. The sound of the *i* in *tin*, *pity*, *pitted*, *stick*, *kick*, &c. This sound is often considered as allied to the sound of *i* in *pine*, *shine*, &c., and as being merely a shortened variety of it. It is, however, the opinion of the best writers on the subject, that it is a shortened form of the sound of *e* in *feet*, rather than of the *i* in

pine. This is the view taken of the sound in question in all languages except the English.

7. The sound of the *oo* in *cool*, and of the *o* in *move*, *prove*.

8. The sound of the *u* in *bull*, *full*, *pull*, &c. Although these two last-mentioned sounds are expressed in spelling by different letters (the one by *u*, and the other by *o*), they are evidently allied in utterance. They are both varieties of one and the same sound, pronounced rapidly in the one case, and slowly in the other. The two sounds bear the same relation to each other as the *a* in *fate* bears to the *a* in *fat*, and the *ee* in *feet* to the *i* in *fit*.

9. The sound of the *aw* in *bawl*, of the *au* in *haul*, and of the *a* in *hall*, *all*, *talk*, &c. This sound is generally expressed by the letter *a*, either alone, as in *all* and *ball*, or combined with some other letter, as in *haul* and *bawl*. This mode of expression is faulty, and conceals the true nature of the sound. Its real relation is to the two sounds that will next be mentioned, to which it stands in the same relation that the *a* in *father* does to the *a* in *fate* and the *a* in *fat*.

10. The sound of the *o* in *note*, *boat*, *float*, *no*, *so*, &c.

11. The sound of the *o* in *not*, *knot*, *knotty*, &c.

12. The sound of the *u* in *but*, *nut*, &c. It is doubtful how far this sound is a separate and independent sound, or how far it is a variety of the *oo* in *cool* and the *u* in *pull*.

The sounds hitherto named are called *vowel* sounds, or *vowels*.

13. The sound of the letter *w* in *woe*, *will*. This

sound is evidently allied to the sound of the *oo* in *cool* (7). Some writers consider it identical, and assert that the words *will* and *oo-il* are sounded alike. It is, however, convenient to consider the *w* in *will* as a separate, independent sound.

14. The sound of the letter *y* in *ye*, *yes*, *yet*. This sound is evidently allied to the sound of the *ee* in *feet* (5). Some writers consider it identical, and assert that the words *yet* and *ee-et* are sounded alike. It is, however, convenient to consider the *y* in *yet* as a separate, independent sound. w and y are called *semi*-vowels (i. e. *half*-vowels).

15. The sound of the letter *p* in *pin*, *pit*, &c.

16. The sound of the letter *b* in *bin*, *bit*, &c.

17. The sound of the letter *f* in *fin*, *fit*, &c.

18. The sound of the letter *v* in *van*, *vane*, &c.

19. The sound of the letter *t* in *tin*, *tip*, *teal*, *neat*, &c.

20. The sound of the letter *d* in *din*, *dip*, *deal*, *need*, &c.

21. The sound of the letters *th* in *thin*, *thick*, *through*, *cloth*, *moth*, &c. It is here necessary to remark the difference that exists between the speaking and the spelling. The sound of the *th* in *thin* is a simple, single, elementary sound; and, as such, should be expressed by a simple, single, elementary letter. Instead of this, it is expressed by two letters, or by a combination; so that, although a simple sound to the ear, it has the appearance of being a compound one to the eye. It is above all things necessary to remember that the real sound of *h* preceded by *t* is very different from that of the *th* in *thin*, and that the real sound of the *th* in *thin* is very different from that of *h* preceded by *t*. More upon this matter will appear in the sequel.

22. The sound of the letters *th* in *thine*, *them*, *than*, *clothe*. Respecting this sound the reader's attention is called to two points : —

1st. That, like the sound last mentioned, it is a simple, single, elementary sound, expressed, not by a simple, single, elementary sign or letter, but by two letters, or a combination.

2d. That, although different from the sound last mentioned (21), it is spelt precisely in the same way.

The *th* in *thin* is allied to the sound of *t*, as in *tin*.

The *th* in *thine* is allied to the sound of *d*, as in *dine*.

23. The sound of the letter *k*, as in *kill*, *keep*, *oak*, &c.

24. The sound of the letter *g*, as in *go*, *gun*, *log*, *egg*, &c.

25. The sound of the letter *s*, as in *sin*, *seal*, *yes*, &c.

26. The sound of the letter *z*, as in *zeal*, *buzz*, *blaze*, &c.

27. The sound of the letters *sh*, as in *shy*, *shine*, *short*, *ash*, *bush*, &c. This sound is in the same predicament as sounds 21 and 22. It is a single, simple, elementary sound, expressed, not by a single, simple, elementary sign or letter, but by two letters, or a combination. The real sound of *h* preceded by *s* is very different from that of the *sh* in *shine*; and the real sound of the *sh* in *shine* is very different from that of *h* preceded by *s*.

28. The sound of the letter *z* in *azure*. Although without a corresponding sign or letter, this sound is single, simple, and elementary. Its real nature, however, is disguised by the various and incorrect methods by which it is represented in writing. The sounds of the *z* in *azure*, the *z* in *glazier*, and the *s* in *pleasure* are

identical. This sound is related to the *sh* in *shine* in the same way as the *th* in *thin* is related to the *th* in *thine*. Moreover, the *sh* in *shine* and the *z* in *azure* are related to the usual sounds of *s* and *z* respectively, just as the *th* in *thin* and the *th* in *thine* are respectively related to *t* and *d*.

The sounds from 15 to 28, inclusive, are called mute sounds, or mutes.

29. The sound of the letters *ng*, as in *king*, *sing*, *ring*. This sound is in the same predicament with sounds 21, 22, and 27. It is a simple, single, elementary sound, expressed, not by a simple, single, elementary sign or letter, but by two letters, or a combination. The real sound of *g* preceded by *n* is very different from that of the *ng* in *king*, and the real sound of the *ng* in *king* is very different from that of *g* preceded by *n*.

30. The sound of the letter *h*, as in *hot*, *hear*, *hop*, &c. It consists of a simple breathing.

31. The sound of the letter *l* in *leg*, *kill*, &c.

32. The sound of the letter *m* in *mat*, *cram*, &c.

33. The sound of the letter *n* in *net*, *none*, &c.

34. The sound of the letter *r* in *row*, *bear*, &c.

These four last-mentioned sounds are called liquids. The mutes, liquids, *ng*, and *h*, taken together, are called consonants.

Here ends the list of the simple, single, elementary sounds in the English language.

§ 36. But, besides these, there are six compound sounds.

Of these, four are compounded by means of a vowel, and two by means of a consonant.

§ 37. The compound sounds formed by vowels fall into two divisions.

§ 38. Compounds formed by means of a vowel and the semivowel *w*. These are two in number : —

1. The sound of the letters *ou* in *house, mouse,* &c. The nature of this compound is disguised by the spelling. It consists of the sound of the *a* in *father*, followed by that of the *w* in *will*, rapidly pronounced.

2. The sound of the letters *ew* in *new*, and also of the single letter *u* (when sounded *ew*) in *muse, tune,* &c. The nature of this compound is disguised by the spelling. It consists of the sound of the *i* in *pit*, followed by that of the *w* in *will*, rapidly pronounced. When represented by means of the single letter *u*, the spelling gives the erroneous notion of its being a single, simple, elementary sound.

§ 39. Compounds formed by means of a vowel and the semivowel *y*. These, also, are two in number : —

1. The sound of the letter *i* in *pine, fine, find, mind.* The nature of this compound is disguised by the spelling. As it is represented by means of the single letter *i*, the erroneous notion is engendered of its being a simple, single, elementary sound ; and also of its being the sound of the *i* in *pit*, lengthened in the pronunciation. Both these views are wrong. The real elements of the sound in question are generally considered to be the sound of the *a* in *fat*, followed by that of the *y* in *yet*, rapidly pronounced.

2. The sound of the letters *oi* in *voice, noise.* The nature of this compound is sufficiently, although not exactly, represented by the spelling. Its real elements

are the *aw* in *bawl* (a variety of the sound of *o* in *note*), and the *y* in *yet*.

§ 40. The compound sounds formed by the union of a vowel and a semivowel are called diphthongs.

§ 41. The compound sounds formed by the union of two consonants are two in number : —

1. The sound of the letters *ch* in *chest*. This is really the sound of *tsh* rapidly pronounced.

2. The sound of the letter *j* in *jest*. This is really the sound of *dzh* rapidly pronounced. The letter *g*, as in *gibbet*, also represents this sound.

§ 42. The sounds that constitute language are formed by means of the breath passing through the throat and mouth, and being acted upon during its passage by the tongue, teeth, or lips.

When the passage of the air is either free, or only partially closed, the stream of air passes without interruption, and so forms the sounds which are called vowel sounds. The first twelve simple elementary sounds were vowels. The sounds of *a*, *e*, or *o* can all be pronounced with the mouth partially open, and with the breath in an uninterrupted stream.

§ 43. The simple, elementary sounds called consonants have the following peculiarity. They are unable to form even the shortest word or syllable without the aid of a vowel. Thus, the vowels *a* or *o* are capable of being used as syllables, and so are the combinations *ba* or *lo*. But the single sounds of *b'*, or *l'*, if taken by themselves, cannot form a word, or even a syllable. In order to do so, they must be joined to a vowel, and *sounded along with it*. For this reason they are called consonants, from the Latin words *con* (*with*) and *sonans*

(*sounding*); whilst the word *vowel* is derived from the Latin word *vocalis* (*vocal*), because vowels can be sounded by themselves.

§ 44. Of the six compound sounds, the first four were called diphthongs, from the Greek words *dis* (*double*), and *phthongé* (*a voice*).

§ 45. The point respecting the nature of the elementary sounds with which it is most important, in English grammar, to be familiar, is the difference between the sounds that are called *sharp*, and the sounds that are called *flat*. This is of especial importance in dealing with the mutes.

In order to understand this difference, it is necessary to take some mute consonants (*p, b, f, v, t, d, th, k, g, s, z, sh, zh*), and to pronounce them as independently of any vowel as it is possible to do. We must try to give a sound to such single consonants as *p', t',* &c. In attempting this, we shall succeed in making an imperfect sound.

Now, if the mute consonant so taken and uttered be one of the following, *p, f, t, th* (as in *thin*), *k, s,* or *sh*, the sound will be that of a whisper. The sound of *p', t',* (such as it is,) is that of a man speaking under the natural pitch of his voice, and at a whisper.

But if the mute consonant so taken and uttered be either *b, v, d, th* (as in *thine*), *g, z,* or *zh*, the sound will be that of a man speaking at the natural pitch of his voice, and with a certain degree of loudness and clearness. This difference in the nature of the mute it is highly important to be familiar with. Those that are sounded like *p'* and *f',* &c., are called the sharp mutes. Those that are sounded like *b'* and *v',* &c., are called the flat mutes.

Sharp.			Flat.		
p	. .	f	b	. .	v
t	. .	th[1]	d	. .	th[2]
k	. .	—	g[3]	. .	—
s	. .	sh	z	. .	z[4]

Sounds that correspond with one another, as *sharp* and *flat*, and *flat* and *sharp*, are called equivalents to one another. Thus : —

> *p* is the sharp equivalent of *b*.
> *b* is the flat equivalent of *p*.
> *f* is the sharp equivalent of *v*.
> *v* is the flat equivalent of *f*.

§ 46. RULE 1. *When two or more mutes of different degrees of sharpness or flatness come together in the same syllable, they form a combination of sounds that is incapable of being pronounced.*

This may be understood by practising a few combinations, according to the above table. The sharp mutes are arranged on the left, the flat ones on the right side of the line. Now, taking whatever letter we may from the one side of the line, and joining it immediately, in the same syllable, with any letter whatever from the other side of the line, we find the combination unpronounceable.

abt,	*avt,*	*abth,*	*avth.*
agt,	*agp,*	*agf,*	*ags.*
apd,	*afb,*	*apv,*	*afd.*
atb,	*akd,*	*akz,*	*akb.*
asd,	*ashd,*	*asg,*	*ashg,* &c.

---

[1] As in *thin*.   [2] As in *thine*.
[3] As in *gun*.   [4] As in *azure*.

Of course, combinations of this sort can be written, and they can be spelt (indeed, in English, as *written* combinations they occur very frequently ; e. g. *stags, lads,* &c., &c.). For them to become pronounceable, a change must occur ; one of the sounds must change its character, and so accommodate itself to the other.

RULE 2. *A sharp mute immediately preceded by a flat one is changed into its flat equivalent, and a flat mute immediately preceded by a sharp one is changed into its sharp equivalent.*

Thus, *abt* becomes pronounceable either by *b* becoming *p*, or by *t* passing into *d ;* in other words, it changes either into *apt* or into *abd.* So on with the rest.

avt	becomes	either	*aft,* or *avd.*
abth	"	"	*apth,* or *abdh.*
agt	"	"	*akt,* or *agd.*
ags	"	"	*aks,* or *agz.*
apd	"	"	*apt,* or *abd.*
asd	"	"	*ast,* or *azd.*
ashd	"	"	*asht,* or *azhd.*
asg	"	"	*ask,* or *azg.*

This change is necessary and universal. It holds good, not for the English alone, but for all languages. The only difference is, that different languages change different letters ; that is, one language accommodates the first letter to the second, and so turns *agt* into *akt ;* whilst another accommodates the second letter to the first, changing *agt* into *agd.*

There is no fact that requires to be more familiarly known than this ; since there are at least three formations in the English language where its influence is most

important. These are the possessive forms in -*s*, the plurals in -*s*, the preterites in -*d* and -*t*.

Neither are there many facts in language more disguised than this is disguised in English. The *s* in the word *stags* is sharp; the *g* in the word *stags* is flat. Notwithstanding this, the combination *ags* exists. It exists, however, in the spelling only. In speaking, the *s* is sounded as *z*, and the word *stags* is pronounced *stagz*. Again, in words like *tossed*, *plucked*, *looked*, the *e* is omitted in pronunciation. Hence the words become *tossd*, *pluckd*, *lookd*; that is, the flat *d* comes in contact with the sharp *k* and *s*. Now, this combination exists in the spelling only; since the preterites of *pluck*, *look*, and *toss* are, in *speech*, pronounced *pluckt*, *lookt*, *tosst*.

For the sake of fixing the attention of the reader on the point, I will indicate in this place the reason for the difference between the spelling and the pronunciation, which has just been alluded to. This is as follows: For the possessive case singular, for the nominative plural, and for the preterite tense of verbs, the forms in Anglo-Saxon were fuller than they are in the present English. The possessive singular ended not in -*es* only, but in -*es*; and the nominative plural in -*as*. Similarly the preterite of the verbs ended either in -*od* or -*ed*, not in -*d* only. E. g. *wordes* = *of a word* (or *word's*), *flódes* = *of a flood* (or *flood's*), *landes* = *of a land* (or *land's*), *thinges* = *of a thing* (or *thing's*), *endas* = *ends*, and so on throughout the language. In this case the vowel separated the two consonants, and kept them from coming together. As long as this vowel kept its place, the consonants remained unchanged, their different degrees of sharpness

and flatness being a matter of indifference. When, however, the vowel was dropped, the consonants came in contact. This reduced a change on one side or the other to a matter of necessity.

§ 47. Next to knowing that two mutes of different degrees of sharpness or flatness cannot come together in the same syllable, it is important to be acquainted with the following rule.

RULE 3. *Two identicul letters cannot come together in the same syllable.*

In illustration of this, we may take a word ending in *p*, *t*, or *s*, such as *tap*, *bat*, or *mis*. To add a second *p*, a second *t*, or a second *s*, is impracticable. At the first glance this statement seems untrue. Nothing, apparently, is commoner than words like *tapp*, *batt*, *miss*. However, like the combinations indicated above, these are, in reality, combinations in spelling only ; they have no existence in pronunciation. We have only to attempt to pronounce *bat't*, *sap'p*, &c., to prove this.

§ 48. Hitherto we have been concerned with the elementary sounds of the English language, and with certain peculiarities of certain combinations. In considering these matters, it may have been observed by the reader that the pronunciation and the spelling do not always coincide. Such is the case with (amongst others) the word *stags*, which is pronounced as if the last letter was *z* (*stagz*). This fact of the difference between the pronunciation and spelling must be borne in mind ; since many words that are sounded alike are spelt differently, and many words that are sounded differently are spelt alike. This leads us to the consideration of the letters and the alphabet. It is necessary to bear in

mind that a letter is not itself a sound, but only the *sign* of a sound.

§ 49. As exhibited in § 35, the number of the simple elementary sounds in English is thirty-four. Of these, however, some may be considered, not as original and separate sounds, but as mere varieties of some other sound; e. g.

The three sounds of *a*, as in *father*, *fate*, and *fat*, may be considered as varieties of one and the same sound. See § 35. 1, 2, 3.

The sounds of *i* in *pit*, and of *ee* in *feet*, may be considered as varieties of one and the same sound; or, if this view be not adopted, the *ee* in *feet* may be considered as a variety of *e* in *bed*. See § 35. 4, 5, 6.

The sounds of *u* in *bull*, and *oo* in *cool*, may be considered as varieties of one and the same sound. See § 35. 7, 8.

The sounds of the *aw* in *bawl*, and of the *o* in *note* and *not*, may be considered as varieties of one and the same sound. See § 35. 9, 10, 11.

These views would reduce the number of elementary sounds in English from thirty-four to twenty-eight.

To express these twenty-eight sounds in writing, there are, in English, the following twenty-six letters: *a e i o u w y p b f v t d k g s z h l m n r j e q x*. It is, therefore, easy to see that there are in English more sounds to be expressed in writing than there are letters to express them by.

From these twenty-six letters, however, we must subtract the following: —

1. The letter *j*, as in *jest*; since it is not one of the twenty-eight *simple* elementary sounds that this letter

is the sign of. The subtraction of the letter *j* reduces the number of letters expressive of the *simple* sounds to twenty-five.

2. The letter *c ;* since it expresses only what is as well expressed by either *s* or *k*. The words *city* and *can* are pronounced *sity* and *kan* respectively. The subtraction of the letter *c* reduces the number of letters expressive of the simple sounds to twenty-four.

3, 4. The letters *q* and *x ;* since *q* is only *kw* (or *cw*), and *x* is only *ks* (or *cs*). The words *queen* and *box* are pronounced *cween* (or *kween*) and *boks* (or *bocks*, or *bocs*), respectively. The subtraction of the letters *q* and *x* reduces the number of letters to twenty-two.

§ 50. We have now seen that for twenty-eight simple, elementary sounds there are only twenty-two simple, elementary letters ; consequently, six of the simple, elementary sounds have no sign or letter corresponding to them. These six sounds are, —

1. The *u* in *but*. This is expressed by the letter *u ;* the proper business of which letter is to express the vowel sound in words like *bull*, one very different from the one in question.

2. The *th* in *thin*. This is a simple sound, and one by no means accurately expressed by the combination *th*. In the Greek alphabet, where this sound occurs it is expressed by a simple sign, the letter *θ*. The same was the case in Anglo-Saxon, where the letter þ was similarly used. The loss of the Anglo-Saxon þ, a simple sign for a simple sound, is to be regretted.

3. The *th* in *thine*. For this simple, single sound the Anglo-Saxons had also a simple, single sign (ð) ;

3

the loss of which in the present English is much to be regretted.

4. The sound of the *sh* in *shine*. This is a simple, single sound, without a sign equally simple and single to express it.

5. The sound of the *z* in *azure*. This is a simple, single sound, without a sign equally simple and single to express it.

6. The sound of the *ng* in *king*. This is a simple, single sound, without a sign equally simple and single to express it.

§ 51. In § 49 the letters of the English language are arranged in a natural order; that is, the Vowels come first, then the Mutes, then the Aspirate *h*, fourthly the Liquids (*l, m, n, r*), and finally the double letter *j*, with the redundant signs *c, q,* and *x*. Besides this, the Mutes that were most akin were placed next each other: thus *p* and *b, t* and *d,* came in order; and so on throughout. Thus the arrangement of the letters, as exhibited in § 49, was a *natural* arrangement; at least, it was a natural arrangement up to a certain point.

§ 52. *The Alphabet.* — The order of the letters in the English Alphabet is *not* the natural order. It is well known to be as follows: *a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.* This arrangement of the English letters is called the *Alphabet.* In the Greek language the name of the first letter (or *a*) is *Alpha,* and of the second (or *b*), *Beta.* From these two words, the names of the first two letters, the word Alphabet is derived.

§ 53. In respect to its merits or demerits the English alphabet is, —

1. *Redundant.* It contains three superfluous letters, viz. *c*, *q*, and *x*.

2. *Deficient.* It wants signs for the six sounds mentioned in § 50.

3. *Inconsistent.* It expresses the double sound of the first letter in *jest* (*dzh*) by a single sign, and the single sounds of the first letters in *thin*, *thine*, and *shine*, by two signs (*th* and *sh*).

There are other faults in the English alphabet and the English method of spelling, which it is not necessary here to enlarge upon. For many of these a sufficient, although not a satisfactory, reason can be exhibited.

§ 54. *Accent.* — Next to the consideration of the elementary sounds, and of the letters that represent them, comes that of Accent. The nature of accent we may exhibit by the word *tyrant*.

In this word there is an emphasis, a stress, or a raising of the voice, on the first syllable; that is, on the syllable *ty*. If we chose to express the fact in writing we might invent a mark of some sort, and place it over or under the syllable *ty*. We might write *týrant*, or *tÿrant*, &c. This raising of the voice, this stress, or this emphasis, is called *accent*. Compared with the syllable *rant*, the syllable *ty* is accented; in other words, the word *týrant* is accented on the first syllable.

The word *týranny* is in the same predicament. The syllable that is accented is the first.

The word *tyránnical* is in a different predicament. The syllable accented is the second.

The following is a sample of words accented on the

first syllable : — *ánchor, árgue, hásten, fáther, fóxes, smíting, húsband, márket, vápor, bárefoot,* &c.

Contrasted with these are the words that will next be introduced : — *brigáde, preténce, harpoón, reliéve, detér, assúme, besoúght, beréft, befóre, abroád, abóde, abstrúse,* &c. Herein the accent is on the last syllable.

The ear should be familiar with the differences of accent in different words. The best practice in this matter is to do as follows, viz. to take a word accented on the first syllable, and to change the place of the accent by removing it to the second, and *vice versá ;* e. g. to pronounce *tyrant* as if it were *tyránt, market* as if it were *markét, detér* as if it were *déter.* This transposition of the accent shows at once the effect that accent has upon the sound of words.

The words quoted above, with their accents transposed, were fictitious specimens. There are in English no such words as *tyránt, markét, déter.* There are, however, in English real specimens of this transposition of the accent. They play an important part in the grammar of the language ; since it is a fact in English that one and the same word may sometimes take its accent on the first, and sometimes on the second syllable, this change of accent being accompanied by a change of meaning. We say, *I am in a state of tórment ;* but we do not say, *These things tórment me.* We say, *These things tormént me ;* but we do not say, *I am in a state of tormént.* The reason of this difference is, that the word *torment* when used as a noun takes its accent on the first syllable, and when used as a verb on the last.

For the sake of accustoming the ear to the nature

of accent, the following list of words is subjoined. It consists of words identical in every thing but the accent. In those of the first column the accent is on the first, in those of the second column on the second syllable. The words in the first column are Nouns (*an ábsent man*). The words in the second column are Verbs (*I absént myself*).

ábsent	absént	éxtract	extráct
ábstract	abstráct	férment	fermént
áccent	accént	fréquent	frequént
áffix	affíx	ímport	impórt
aúgment	augmént	íncense	incénse
cólleague	colleágue	ínsult	insúlt
cómpact	compáct	óbject	objéct
cómpound	compóund	pérfume	perfúme
cómpress	compréss	pérmit	permít
cóncert	concért	préfix	prefíx
cóncrete	concréte	prémise	premíse
cónduct	condúct	présage	preságe
cónfine	confíne	présent	presént
cónflict	conflíct	próduce	prodúce
cónserve	consérve	próject	projéct
cónsort	consórt	prótest	protést
cóntract	contráct	rébel	rebél
cóntrast	contrást	récord	recórd
cónverse	convérse	réfuse	refúse
cónvert	convért	súbject	subjéct
désert	desért	súrvey	survéy
déscant	descánt	tórment	tormént
éssay	essáy	tránsfer	transfér
éxport	expórt	tránsport	transpórt

The next question is the proportion that the accented and unaccented syllables bear to each other. In *hásten* and *detér* each word consisted of two syllables, of which the one was accented and the other was not. The proportion, therefore, of the unaccented syllable to the accented was as one to one. In *týranny* the case was different. The unaccented syllables were as two to one. What follows is a classification of words according to the proportion of their accented and unaccented syllables ; and the divisions are again subdivided according to the place of the accent.

I. Words where the unaccented syllables are to the accented syllables as one to one : —

a. The accent on the first syllable, — *ánchor*, *árgue*, *hásten*, *týrant*, *foólish*, *lóver*, *stánding*, *wórship*, *líar*, *beádle*, &c.

b. The accent on the second syllable, — *harpoón*, *brigáde*, *beseéch*, *detér*, *beliéve*, *assúme*, *invént*, *relý*, *refúse*, *attaín*, &c.

II. Words where the unaccented syllables are to the accented syllables as two to one : —

a. The accent on the first syllable, — *fórtify*, *mérrily*, *cheérily*, *pítiful*, *déstitute*.

b. The accent on the second syllable, — *disáble*, *repélling*, *endeávor*, *replénish*, &c.

c. The accent on the third syllable, — *cavaliér*, *disembógue*, &c.

§ 55. *Syllables*. — Take any word in the English language, such as *he*, *man*, *over*, *under*. If we examine this, we shall find that it consists of a certain number of sounds, which sounds are more or less perfectly expressed by letters. Thus the word *man* con-

sists of three sounds; the first that of a consonant, the second that of a vowel, and the third that of a consonant again. The first of these is represented by the letter *m*, the second by the letter *a*, the third by the letter *n*. The three sounds *taken together* form the word *man*, as it is heard in the spoken language. The three letters (*m*, *a*, and *n*) being taken together form the word *man*, as it is read in the written language. In this word a certain number of sounds are taken together, and by that means there is constituted what the grammarians call a syllable. The word syllable is derived from the Greek words *syn* (*with*) and *labein* (*to take*). The word *man* is not only a syllable, but a word also; which shows that words may consist of a single syllable.

Words consisting of single syllables are called *monosyllables*, from the Greek word *monos* (*alone*), — *man*, *he*, *she*, *child*, &c.

Words consisting of two syllable are called *dissyllables*, from the Greek word *dis* (*twice*), — *over*, *under*, *about*, *father*, *mother*, &c.

Words consisting of three syllables are called *trisyllables*, from the Greek word *treis* (*three*), — *disable*, *fatherless*, *repining*, *sorcerer*, &c.

Words consisting of more than three syllables are called *polysyllables*, from the Greek word *polys* (*many*), — *architecture*, *incapacity*, *fermentation*, &c.

§ 56. *Quantity.* — By comparing the sound of the letter *a* in *fate* with that of the *a* in *fat*, we perceive two things, a likeness and a difference. The likeness consists in both sounds having the character of *a ;* the difference consists in the unequal length of the two

sounds. In *fate* the vowel is pronounced slowly, so that the time taken up in the utterance is, comparatively speaking, long. In *fat* the vowel is pronounced less slowly, so that the time taken up in the utterance is, comparatively speaking, short. Hence the *a* in *fate*, and the vowel sounds like it, are called Long Vowels; and the *a* in *fat*, and the vowel sounds like it, are called Short Vowels.

§ 57. *Quantity of Vowels.* — The following table exhibits the quantity of the vowels in English.

Long Vowels.			Short Vowels.		
a	in	*father*	.	.	. .
.	.	*fate*	*a*	in	*fat*
ee	.	*feet*	*i*	.	. *pit*
oo	.	*cool*	*u*	.	. *bull*
aw	.	*bawl*	.	.	. .
o	.	*note*	*o*	.	. *not*
.	.	. .	*u*	.	. *but*

The difference between long and short sounds is expressed by the marks ‾ and ˘. The former is placed above long, and the latter above short sounds.

Long Sounds.	Short Sounds.	Long Sounds.	Short Sounds.
bāte	băt	feēt	fĭt
pāte	păt	beāt	bĭt
hāte	hăt	peāt	pĭt
strāit	săd	coōl	bŭll
gāte	glăd	poōl	pŭll
whīte	whĭt	pōle	hŏt
slīght	slĭt	nōte	nŏt
sprīte	hĭt	boāt, &c.	bŏss, &c.

§ 58. *Quantity of Syllables.* — In every syllable there must be one vowel sound. In no syllable can there be more than one vowel sound. These two facts taken together show that the vowel is the essential part of the syllable. The application of this fact will appear within a few sentences. At present it is necessary to inquire into the length of syllables.

The syllable *men* and the syllable *mend* are of different lengths. The latter is longer than the former by a sound, i. e. by the sound expressed by the letter *d*. In both syllables, however, the vowel is the same, and consequently of the same quantity. Thus we see that, as far as the vowel *taken by itself* is concerned, the two syllables (*men* and *mend*) are of the same length; whilst they are of different lengths if the vowel *be considered along with the consonants that follow it* (*n, d*).

Again, the syllable *seen* and the syllable *see* are of different lengths. The latter is shorter than the former by a sound, i. e. by the sound expressed by the letter *n*. In both syllables, however, the vowel is the same, and consequently of the same quantity. Thus we see that, as far as the vowel *taken by itself* is concerned, the two syllables (*seen* and *see*) are of the same quantity; whilst they are of different quantities if the vowel *be considered along with the consonant that follows it*.

Hence there are two ways of determining the quantity of a syllable : —

1st. By measuring it by the quantity of the vowel. — In this case short vowels form short syllables, even though the number of consonants that follow them be great; and long vowels form long syllables, even though few or no consonants follow.

2d. By measuring it by the vowels and consonants taken together. — In this case short vowels constitute long syllables when followed by a number of consonants, and long vowels constitute short syllables when followed by few or no consonants.

In the English language it is the former measure that is adopted ; that is, the quantity of the vowel determines the quantity of the syllable.

§ 59. *Orthography.* — This term is derived from the two Greek words, *orthos* (*upright*, *right*, *correct*) and *graphô* (*I write*). It signifies *right writing.* Orthography teaches us to represent the words of the spoken language by means of letters ; that is, by writing or printing. If we first pronounce a word (e. g. *man*, *child*), then spell it or write it down, and, lastly, inquire whether the spelling is correct, we ask a question belonging to the province of *orthography.*

Orthography deals with words as they are spelt, or with language as it is written.

§ 60. *Orthoepy.* — Orthoepy is different from orthography. There are a vast number of words of which the pronunciation is doubtful, being sounded differently by different persons. For instance, the word *neither* is pronounced in three ways : *nither*, *nayther*, and *neether.* To ascertain the proper pronunciation of words is the province of *orthoepy.* The word means *right pronunciation.* It teaches us to *speak* the words of our language accurately. If we first pronounce a word, and then ask whether we have pronounced it properly, we ask a question belonging to the province of orthoepy. Orthoepy deals with words as they are pronounced, or with language as it is sounded.

The term is derived from two Greek words, *orthos* (*upright*, *right*, *correct*) and *epô* (*I speak*).

§ 61. In no language do the spelling and the speaking (that is, the orthography and the orthoepy) absolutely coincide. The former always represents the latter more or less imperfectly. Some of the reasons for this in the particular case of our own language, may be seen in §§ 49 and 50. In those sections it is shown that the number of simple, elementary sounds is greater than that of the simple, elementary signs (or letters) expressive of them. This deficiency reduces the orthography to the following dilemma. Either certain sounds must not be distinguished at all, or else they must be distinguished by means more or less incorrect. A practical knowledge of some of the main peculiarities may be collected from the forthcoming observations upon the use of particular letters. Previously, however, it is necessary to be familiar with the following facts.

§ 62. *The Broad and Small Vowels.* — Of the vowels, three are what is called Broad, and three what is called Small. The broad vowels are *a*, *o*, *u;* the small vowels are *e*, *i*, and *y* (whenever that letter is sounded as *e* or *i*).

§ 63. *The Affinities of* k *with* s. — It is a fact observed in most languages, that, under certain circumstances, the sound of *k* has a tendency to change into that of *s*. There are innumerable instances of syllables which in an early stage of language were sounded *kee* and *ki*, being, in a later stage of the same language, sounded as *see* and *si*. At other times the change is from *k* to *tsh*. There are innumerable instances of syllables

which in an early stage of language were sounded as *kee* and *ki*, being, in a later stage of the same language, sounded as *tshee* and *tshi* (in the English orthography *chee* and *chi*).

§ 64. *The Affinity between* g *and* j. — It is a fact observed in most languages, that, under certain circumstances, the sound of *g* (as in *got*) has a tendency to change into some sound allied to that of *j* or *dzh*. There are innumerable instances of syllables which in an early stage of language were sounded *gee*[1] and *gi*[1], being, in a later stage of the same language, sounded as *dzhee*[2] and *dzhi*.[2]

§ 65. Observe in the two preceding sections the words " *certain circumstances*." The circumstances that especially favor the conversion of the sounds of *k* and *g* (as in *kin* and *got*) into the sounds allied to *s* and *dzh* are, —

1. The fact of their being immediately followed by the sound of the semivowel *y* (as in *yet*).

2. The fact of their being immediately followed by a small vowel.   See § 62.

§ 66. *Conventional Methods of expressing the Quantity of Vowels*. — As these apply to all the vowels equally, they may be mentioned in the present place more properly than under the head of any particular letter.

The sounds of the vowel *a* in *fate* and *fat* evidently differ from each other in respect to quantity.   Upon this fact the following questions arise : —

1. Whether it is necessary to express this difference in writing.

---

[1] As the *g* in *gig*, *gibberish*, and *gun*.

[2] As the *j* in *jig*, and the *g* in *gibbet*.

2. Supposing the necessity of so doing, how it is to be done.

The *a* in *fate* is long, the *a* in *fat* short. The shortest way of expressing this difference is to have two separate signs (or letters); one for the long sound, the other for the short one. This is actually done in the Greek language; where the sounds of the *e* in *bed* and the *o* in *not* are expressed by the signs ε and o, whilst those of the *ee* in *feet* and the *o* in *note* are expressed by the signs η and ω, respectively. Such, however, is not the method in English. In English we have methods less simple, partaking of the nature of expedients.

§ 67. *Conventional Methods of expressing the Longness of Vowels.* This is done in three ways: —

1. By doubling the vowel; *fĕd*, *feēd*.

2. By adding a second vowel, and so giving the appearance of a diphthong; *rĕd*, *reād*.

3. By adding at the end of the word the letter *e*, which, from the circumstance of its not being sounded, is called the *e* mute; *băt*, *bāte*.

§ 68. *Conventional Method of expressing the Shortness of a Vowel.* — The fact of a vowel being short is generally expressed by doubling the consonant that follows. In § 47 it is stated that a real doubling of the *sound* of a consonant within one and the same syllable is impracticable; hence such forms as *toss* and *egg* are to be looked upon as modes of *spelling* only. This mode of spelling gives us a convenient method of exhibiting to the eye the fact of the vowel that precedes the doubled letter being short. The reader is again warned that the sound of the consonant is not really doubled.

§ 69. *The Etymological Principle.* — The sound of the letter *c* in the word *city* is a sound that we naturally express by the letter *s* ; and, if we looked only to the expression of the sound, we should spell the word *sity*. This, however, is not the case, and that for the following reason. The word *city* is a word of Latin origin. In that language its form was *civitas*, and it was spelt with *c*. To change this *c* into *s* conceals, in some degree, the *origin* of the word ; for this reason the *c* is retained.

There are in the English language many words like *city*, where the natural spelling is with *s*, but where *c* is retained for the sake of exhibiting the *origin*, *history*, or *derivation* of the word. Now the origins, histories, and derivations of words are taught by what is called Etymology ; so that, when we admit a mode of spelling that for the mere representation of the sound is unnecessary, we admit it on what is called the Etymological Principle.

§ 70. *Remarks on the Powers of the Letter C.* — 1. Before a small vowel *c* is pronounced as *s* ;[1] *city, citizen, cetaceous, Cyprian.* (See §§ 62, 63, 64, 65.)

2. Before a broad vowel or a consonant *c* is pronounced as *k* ; *cat, craft.* (See *k.*)

3. Followed by the letter *h* it serves to express the sound of *tsh* ; as *church, birch.*

4. At the end of a word *c* rarely occurs. (See *k.*)

§ 71. *Remarks on the Powers of the Letter D.* — In a large class of words *d* is used in spelling where the real sound is that of *t.* Words like *stuffed, tripped,*

---

[1] In *sin;* never as *s* in *those*, i. e. as *z.*

plucked, &c., are all pronounced *stuft*, *tript*, *pluckt*, &c. It is very important to be familiar with the orthographical substitution of *d* for *t*.

§ 72. *Remarks on the Powers of the Letter* G. — 1. Before a small vowel *g* is generally pronounced as *j* ; *Egypt*, *gin*, *gibe*, *gibbet*, *con-geal*, *gem*, &c. (See § 64.)

2. Before a broad vowel or a consonant *g* is pronounced as in *gun*.

3. With the letter *h* it retains its natural sound, as in *ghost*.

§ 73. *Remarks on Certain Powers of the Letter* H. — The letter *h* enters into combination with other letters, and these combinations of *h* with other letters are used as convenient modes of expressing those simple, elementary sounds which have no sign (or letter) equally simple to represent them. (See § 50.)

1. The combination of *h* with *t*, or *th*. This combination expresses two sounds : 1. that of the *th* in *thin ;* 2. that of the *th* in *thine*.

2. The combination of *h* with *s*, or *sh*. This combination expresses the sound of the *sh* in *shine*.

3. The combination of *h* with *c*, or *ch*. This combination expresses the sound of the *ch* in *chest*, and is equivalent to *tsh*.

§ 74. *The Letter* I. — For the circumstance of this letter representing two distinct sounds, see § 35. 6.

§ 75. *The Letter* K. — 1. *K* rarely comes before a broad vowel. In this place we generally find *c*.

2. But it is used before a small vowel ; because in that position *c* would run the chance of being sounded as *s*. (See § 70.)

3. At the end of words, *k* is used in preference to
c. We write *stick*, *lock*, rather than *stic*, *loc*, or *sticc*,
locc.

4. *K* is rarely doubled. We write *stick*, *lock*, rather
than *stikk*, *lokk*.

§ 76. *The Letter* S. — In a very large class of words
the letter *s* is used in spelling where the real sound is
that of the letter *z*. Words like *stags*, *balls*, *peas*, &c.,
are pronounced *stagz*, *ballz*, *peaz*. It is very important
to be familiar with this orthographical substitution of *s*
for *z*.

§ 77. The whole of the details in the English spelling
are far too numerous to be exhibited in the present
pages. Those that have been just noticed are the points
of the greatest importance. By attending to what fol-
lows, we shall see that for most of the leading peculiar-
ities there is a reason.

§ 78. The reason for *c*, when followed by a small
vowel, having the sound of *s*, may be collected from
§§ 62, 63, 64, 65.

§ 79. The reason for *c* (§ 70) being rarely found at
the end of words is as follows : —

The sound of the letter *c* is *either* that of *k* or of *s*.

Which of these sounds it shall represent is determined
by what follows. (See § 70.)

If followed by nothing, it has no fixed sound.

At the end of words it is followed by nothing,

Whence it has no fixed sound ; and

Therefore is inconvenient at the end of words.

§ 80. The reason for *d* being often sounded like *t*
(§ 71) is as follows : —

The words where it is so sounded are either the past

tenses of verbs, or the participles of verbs, — as *plucked*, *tossed*, *stepped*, &c.

Now the letter *e* in the second syllable of these words (and of words like them) is not sounded ; whence the sounds of *k* (in *pluck*), of *s* (in *toss*), and of *p* (in *step*), come in immediate contact with the sound of the letter *d*.

But the sound of the letter *d* is flat, whilst those of *k*, *s*, and *p* are sharp ; so that the combinations *kd*, *sd*, and *pd* are unpronounceable. Hence *d* is sounded as *t*. (See § 46.)

In the older stages of the English language the vowel *e* (or some other vowel equivalent to it) was actually sounded, and in those times *d* was sounded also.

Hence *d* is retained in spelling, although its sound is the sound of *t*.

§ 81. The reason for *g*, when followed by a small vowel, having the sound of *dzh* (or *j*), may be collected from § 64.

§ 82. The reason for *h* appearing in combination with *t*, *s*, and *c*, in words like *thin* (and *thine*), *shine*, and *chest*, is as follows : —

The Greeks had in their language the sounds of both the *t* in *tin*, and of the *th* in *thin*.

These two sounds they viewed in a proper light ; that is, they considered them both as simple, single elementary sounds.

Accordingly, they expressed them by signs, or letters, equally simple, single, and elementary. The first they denoted by the sign or letter τ, the second by the sign or letter θ.

They observed also the difference in sound between these two sounds.

4

To this difference of sound they gave names. The sound of τ (*t*) was called *psilon* (a word meaning *bare*). The sound of θ (*th*) was called *dasy* (a word meaning *rough*).

In the Latin language, however, there was no such sound as that of *th* in *thin*.

And, consequently, there was no simple, single sign to represent it.

Notwithstanding this the Latins knew of the sound, and of its being in Greek; and, at times, when they wrote words of Greek extraction, they had occasion to represent it.

They also knew that the sound was called *dasy*, in opposition to the sound of *t* (τ), which was *psilon*.

Now the Latins conceived that the difference between a sound called *psilon* and a sound called *dasy* consisted in the latter being pronounced with a stronger breath, or breathing.

In the Latin language the word *aspiration* means *breathing*; so that, according to the views just stated, the Greek word *dasy* was translated by the Latin word *aspiratus* (i. e. *aspirated* or *accompanied by a breathing*).

In Latin the letter *h* was not called a sound, but merely a breathing (*aspiratio*).

This being the case, the addition of the letter *h* was thought a fit way of expressing the difference between the sounds of the *t* in *tin* and the *th* in *thin*.

As the influence of the Latin language was great, this view of the nature of the sound of *th* (and of sounds like it) became common.

The Anglo-Saxons, like the Greeks, had a simple,

single sign for the simple, single sound ; viz. þ (for the *th* in *thin*) and ð (for the *th* in *thine*).

But their Norman conquerors had neither sound nor sign, and so they succeeded in superseding the Anglo-Saxon by the Latin mode of spelling.

Add to this, that they treated the two sounds of *th* (*thin* and *thine*) as one, and spelt them both alike.

In effecting the combinations *sh* and *ch*, other causes, requiring long explanation, were at work over and above the one just given.

§ 83. Of the letter *k* it may be said, in general terms, that it is never used except where *c* would be pronounced as *s ;* that is, before a small vowel (§ 75). If *kid* were spelt *cid*, it would run the chance of being pronounced *sid*.

Now, the preference of *c* to *k* is another instance of the influence of the Latin language. The letter *k* was wanting in Latin ; and, as such, was eschewed by languages whose orthography was influenced by the Latin.

§ 84. Why *k* occurs rather than *c* at the end of words (§ 75) may be seen in § 79.

§ 85. Why *k* is not doubled (§ 75) may be collected from § 83. *K* is never used where *c* will serve the purpose. Now *c* followed by *k* is *not* liable to be pronounced as *s*. Hence, we write *stick* rather than *stikk*. Why *stick* is preferable to *sticc* may be seen in § 79.

§ 86. The reason for *s* being often sounded like *z* (§ 76) is as follows : —

The words where it is so sounded are either possessive cases, or plural nominatives ; as *stag's, stags, slab's, slabs*, &c.

Now in these words (and in words like them) the sounds of *g* (in *stag*) and of *b* (in *slab*) come in immediate contact with the sound of the letter *s*.

But the sound of the letter *s* is sharp, whilst those of *g* and *b* are flat, so that the combinations *gs*, *bs* are unpronounceable. Hence *s* is sounded as *z*. See § 46.

In the older stages of the English language a vowel was interposed between the last letter of the word and the letter *s*, and, when that vowel was sounded, *s* was sounded also.

Hence *s* is retained in spelling, although its sound is the sound of *z*.

§ 87. This fact of *s* at the end of words so frequently being sounded as *z* reduces the writer to a strait whenever he has to express the *true* sound of *s* at the end of a word. To write *s* on such an occasion would be to use a letter that would probably be mispronounced ; that is, pronounced as *z*.

The first expedient he would hit upon would be to double the *s*, and write *ss*. But here he would meet with the following difficulty. A double consonant expresses the shortness of the vowel preceding (§ 68) ; as *tŏss*, *hĭss*, *ĕgg*, &c. Hence a double *s* (*ss*) might be misinterpreted.

In this case he has recourse to the letter *c*. The letter *c*, followed by a small vowel, is sounded as *s* (§ 70), — *pence, dice, ice*, &c.

PART III.

ETYMOLOGY.

OF PROPOSITIONS.

§ 88. PREVIOUS to proceeding further in the study of the English language, it is necessary to be familiar with the nature and structure of Propositions. These are exhibited in the following sentences : *Man is mortal,* — *summer is pleasant,* — *winter is cold,* — *life is short,* — *art is long,* — *fire is hot,* — *iron is useful,* — *bread is cheap.* Each of these assertions forms what is called a proposition. It must be remarked that in each of the propositions given above the number of words is exactly three ; neither more nor less. The next point to observe is this, viz. that in each proposition an assertion of some sort is made. In the first it is asserted of *man* that he is *mortal ;* in the second it is asserted of *summer* that it is *pleasant ;* and so on throughout. If it were not for the fact of an assertion being made, there would be no proposition. Every proposition is an assertion, and every assertion a proposition.

In each of the propositions above, we may insert the word *not* after *is,* and say, *man is* not *mortal, summer is* not *pleasant, winter is* not *cold, life is* not *short,* and so on. Notwithstanding the insertion of the word *not,* the assertion still remains ; and, as the assertion remains,

the proposition remains along with it. The only differ-
ence is, that in some cases, as in the words, *man is* not
mortal, the assertion, or proposition, is a false one.
Now the insertion of the word *not* has shown, that of
propositions, or assertions, there are two sorts : 1. Those
like *man is mortal*, wherein something is affirmed or
stated to be ; 2. Those like *man is* not *mortal*, wherein
something is denied, or stated *not* to be : i. e. the fact
of *man* being *mortal* is affirmed in the first, whilst the
fact of *man* being *mortal* is denied in the second case.

Every proposition belongs to one of the classes
above ; that is, it is either an affirmative proposition or
a negative proposition. In consequence of this, there
must, of necessity, be in every proposition something
expressive of its nature in this respect; that is, if it
affirm any thing, there must be some such word as *is*
to express that affirmation ; and if it deny any thing,
there must be some such expression as *is not* to express
that denial. To say, *man mortal, summer pleasant, win-
ter cold, life short*, &c., is to combine words to no pur-
pose. They form only parts of propositions. We have
now seen that in every proposition there is at least
one element absolutely essential. Besides this there is
another.

If we say, *is mortal, is pleasant, is cold, is short, is
long*, &c., we combine words to no purpose. They
form only parts of propositions ; they convey no mean-
ing ; they require the addition of something else in
order to complete the sense. If a person uses them,
we ask the questions, *what is mortal ? what is pleas-
ant ? what is cold ?* &c. Something or other, that is,
some object, must be *mortal*, or *pleasant*, or *cold*.

What this object is we wish to know. We wish to know the object to which the words *mortal, cold, warm,* apply ; we wish to know the subject of the discourse ; we wish to know what that object is concerning which the assertion that it *is cold*, or *pleasant*, &c. is made. Without some subject concerning which we can affirm or deny something, no assertion can be made ; and where there is no assertion there is no proposition. We have now seen that in every proposition a second element is absolutely essential.

But, besides this, there is a third. If we say, *man is, summer is, winter is, life is, art is, fire is*, &c. ; or if we say, *man is not, summer is not, winter is not, life is not*, &c., we combine words to no purpose. They form only parts, or fragments, or rudiments of prop-ositions. We speak, indeed, of *man, summer*, &c., but we state nothing concerning them ; we say nothing about them. As to whether they are *mortal* or *not mortal, cold* or *not cold*, we make no assertion. *Man, summer*, &c. are the subjects of our discourse ; but, as there is nothing that we affirm or deny concerning them (such as the fact of their being *mortal, warm,* &c.), there is no assertion ; and where there is no as-sertion, there is no proposition. Thus we have seen that in every proposition a third element is absolutely necessary.

Every proposition has three elements or parts. Their names are as follows.

§ 89. The object concerning which we make an as-sertion, or the subject of our discourse, is called the Subject. *Man, summer, winter*, &c. are subjects ; and we can assert of them that they are *mortal*, or *warm*,

or *cold*, &c.; or else the contrary, i. e. that they are *not mortal*, *not warm*, &c. In the first case they are the subjects of an affirmative, in the next of a negative proposition.

§ 90. The assertion made concerning any object, or concerning the subject of our discourse, is called the Predicate. *Mortal*, *warm*, *cold*, &c. are predicates; and we can speak of certain things as *mortal*, *warm*, *cold*, or the contrary. In the first case they are Predicates in an affirmative, in the second they are Predicates in a negative proposition.

§ 91. That part of a proposition which connects the subject and predicate is called the Copula. If the word *is* stand by itself, the proposition is affirmative; if it be accompanied by the word *not*, it is negative.

§ 92. Thus a proposition consists of three parts: (1.) the object spoken of, called the Subject; (2.) that which is said of it, called the Predicate; whilst between them comes (3.) the Copula, by which the predicate (e. g. the word *mortal*) is affirmed (*is*) or denied (*is not*) of the subject, — *man is mortal*, or *man is not mortal*.

The copula connects the predicate with the subject.

§ 93. The following words, amongst many others, are capable of forming, by themselves, subjects.

man	bow	wealth
woman	arrow	happiness
child	dart	goodness
father	spear	strength
mother	fishing-rod	length
son	fisherman	air
daughter	hunter	fire

horse	shooter	water
mule	lioness	body
dog	book	soul
ox	pen	atmosphere
ass	ink	firmament
fowl	paper	sun
bird	virtue	sky
egg	vice	essence.

§ 94. The following words, amongst many others, are capable of forming, by themselves, predicates.

good	deep	shooting
bad	broad	shining
indifferent	long	weeping
big	short	groaning
little	fierce .	blazing
great	happy	laughing
small	virtuous	thinking
black	vicious	standing
white	manly	conquering
red	womanly	conquered
green	childish	hunted .
hot	fatherlike	moved
cold	bodily	beaten
weak	atmospheric	drifted
strong	essential	sifted
high	personal	driven.

The words in the third column should especially be observed. They all end in -*ing*, -*en*, or -*ed*.

Besides these, all the words mentioned in § 93, that is, all that could by themselves form subjects, can also by themselves form predicates. The contrary, how-

ever, does not take place ; that is, the words in § 94 that can by themselves form predicates, cannot also by themselves form subjects.

§ 95. We have now seen that there are at least three sorts, or classes, of words : (1.) those that, by themselves, form *either* subjects or predicates ; (2.) those that, by themselves, form predicates *only ;* (3.) those that, by themselves, form copulas. To these must be added a fourth class, consisting of words like *not*, that convert an affirmative copula into a nega-tive one.

§ 96. The form of proposition that is at once the simplest and the most regular is that where the number of words and the number of parts coincide ; that is, where an affirmative proposition consists of three words (neither more nor less), and a negative one of four. In this case each part consists of a single word ; e. g. the subject of one (*man*), the predicate of one (*mor-tal*), the affirmative copula of one (*is*), the negative copula of two (*is not*) = *man is mortal, man is not mortal.*

It is not, however, the usage of language for proposi-tions to take always the simple and regular form exhib-ited above. Languages *may be* so constructed as to ad-mit of two of the parts of a proposition being included in a single word ; and, in reality, most languages *are* so constructed.

§ 97. The copula and predicate may be expressed by a single word. To say *men die*, or *fires burn*, is to make an assertion concerning *men* and *fires*. This as-sertion is that they *are dying*, or that they *are not dy-ing ;* that they *are burning*, or that they *are not burn-*

ing. Instead, however, of saying *are dying*, or *are burning*, we say *die* and *burn*. The predicate in full would be *burning*, and the copula in full would be *are* (or *is*). Whether, however, *man dies*, or whether *fire burns*, is expressed as well by the words *man dies*, and *fire burns*, as by the fuller forms, *man is dying*, *fire is burning.*

§ 98. We have now seen that there is a fifth class of words, namely, those that, by themselves, form a copula and predicate at once. The words in this class may be said to be of a mixed nature, since they can be resolved into the copulas and predicates to which they are equivalent.

§ 99. The following words, amongst others, are capable of forming, by themselves, both a predicate and a copula at once.

eat	teach	shoot
drink	learn	shine
speak	read	weep
breathe	write	groan
live	worship	blaze
die	petrify	laugh
fear	boil	think
hope	ride	stand
love	walk	conquer
see	sigh	murmur
hear	hunt	astonish
speak	fish	pine
hunger	impeach	beat
mock	drive	drift
stain	move	sift.

Compare the words in the third column with those in the third column of § 94.

§ 100. Inasmuch as the copula connects the subject and predicate, it comes between them ; *man* is *mortal*. Hence the copula forms the middle part of a proposition. Consequently the subject and the predicate form the two limits, boundaries, or extremities of a proposition. Now the Latin word for a *limit*, *boundary*, or *extremity* is *terminus*. Hence the subject and predicate of a proposition are called, in logical and grammatical language, the *terms* of a proposition. The subject is one *term*, the predicate another.

§ 101. In logic the subject stands at the beginning, the predicate at the end of a proposition. Thus we say, *Diana* is *great ;* where *Diana* is the subject, *great* the predicate.

We may, however, also say, *great* is *Diana ;* in which case the predicate *begins*, whilst the subject *ends* the proposition.

This shows that the order of the parts of a proposition is not always the same in language as it is in logic.

§ 102. The following list of words indicates a fresh point in the structure of terms : *wisely, brightly, justly, quickly, slowly, badly, once, twice, thrice, now, then, already, to-morrow, oft, of, to, for, by, with, from, in, into, over, under, through, at, near, on, about,* &c. Not one of these words can form a term by itself ; that is, not one of them can be either subject, predicate, or copula, so long as it stands alone. We may verify this by constructing such combinations as *wisely is good, from is black, man is wisely,* &c. It is only when taken along with other words that the words above can

find place in a proposition. We can say, *the sun is shining brightly, the sun in the sky is shining ;* since, in these cases, the words *brightly* and *in* are subordinate to the words *shining* and *sky* respectively.

§ 103. All words that, by themselves, form *either* subjects or predicates, are called Nouns. §§ 93, 94.

§ 104. Nouns are of two sorts, Substantives and Adjectives. The words under § 93 are Substantives. Of these words each is the name of some object which we can either see, hear, taste, smell, feel, or think about. Some of them we can perceive with our outward senses, such as our eyes or ears (e. g. *man, fowl, bird, paper*). Others we can perceive by the understanding (as *length, wealth, goodness*). This is the reason why we are enabled to make them the subjects of propositions.

§ 105. A noun that, by itself, forms either the subject or the predicate of a proposition, and is also the *name* of an object, is called a Noun Substantive, or simply a Substantive.

§ 106. The words under § 94 are Adjectives. Of these words each is the name expressive of some quality belonging to some object (e. g. *bad, good, black, white*). We can say that certain objects are, or are not, endowed with certain qualities ; e. g. we can say that *man* (the name expressing an object) is *mortal* (the name expressing a quality), or *endowed with the quality of mortality.* Concerning such and such objects (or subjects) we may assert such and such qualities. This is the reason why words like those in § 94 can form by themselves the predicates of propositions.

A noun that by itself forms the predicate of a prop-

osition, but which cannot by itself form the subject of one, is called a Noun Adjective, or simply an Adjective.

§ 107. A word that forms by itself the copula of a proposition is called a Verb Substantive, as *is*, *are*, *be*, *was*, *were*.

§ 108. Words that, by themselves, form both a copula and predicate at once are called Verbs Proper, or simply Verbs. Such are the words under § 99.

SUBSTANTIVES.

§ 109. *Gender.* — The words *boy* and *girl*, *father* and *mother*, *brother* and *sister*, *uncle* and *aunt*, *horse* and *mare*, are the names of animals, or subjects, of different sexes. *Boy*, *father*, *brother*, *uncle*, *horse*, are names of Males ; *girl*, *mother*, *sister*, *aunt*, *mare*, are names of Females. In the following list the words in the first column are (like the words *boy*, *father*, *horse*, &c.) names for male objects ; and those in the second column (like *girl*, *mother*, *mare*) names for female ones.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
bachelor	maid	ram	ewe
buck	doe	husband	wife
bull	cow	nephew	niece
drake	duck	king	queen.

Here objects of different sexes are expressed by wholly different words.

§ 110. The words of the next list are somewhat in a different condition. As before, the names of male objects occur in the first, those of female in the second column.

Male.	Female.
he-goat	*she*-goat
cock-sparrow	*hen*-sparrow
man-servant	*maid*-servant.

Here objects of different sexes are expressed by *partially* different words. The words *cock* and *hen* placed before the word *sparrow* form a compound word. And so it is with the other words, *he*-goat, *she*-goat, *man*-servant, *maid*-servant. The parts in italics are added to the original word, in order to denote a difference of sex. It must be remarked that each part of the words above, even when separated from the other, forms an independent word. *He*, *she*, *cock*, *hen*, *man*, and *maid*, are independent words ; and so are *goat*, *sparrow*, and *servant*. Hence it is that the words *he-goat*, &c., are compound words, and in the examples just given the difference of sex is expressed by Composition. Composition is the combination of whole words.

§ **111.** *Difference of Sex expressed by Derivation.* — The words in the first column are the names of males, those in the second of females.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
actor	act*ress*	peer	peer*ess*
baron	baron*ess*	poet	poet*ess*
count	count*ess*	tiger	tigr*ess*
lion	lion*ess*	duke	duch*ess*.

Here the names of females are formed from those of males by the addition of the syllable *ess*; as *lion-ess* (a *female lion*) from *lion* (a *male lion*). Now if from the word *lioness* we take away the first two syllables

(*lion*), and leave the syllable *ess* alone, we have no full, independent word, but only the part of a word; since *ess* has no meaning when taken by itself. In this respect words like *lioness* differ from words like *he-goat*, where each of the parts, if separated from the other, forms a full and true word (*he* and *goat*). The word *lion-ess* is *derived* from *lion;* so that *lion-ess* and words like it are examples of a difference of sex expressed by derivation. Derivation is the addition of *parts* of words.

§ 112. We may now add to any of the words that have gone before some such word as *good*, *bad*, *brave*, &c.; in other words, some adjective; and say *a good father*, *a good mother*, *a brave boy*, *a brave girl*, *a fierce lion*, *a fierce lioness*, *a good actor*, *a good actress*. Having done this, we remark that the words *good*, *bad*, *brave*, &c., whether joined to words like *actor* and *lion* (the names of male objects), or to words like *actress* and *lioness* (the names of female objects), are precisely the same. We use the words *good* and *bold* in speaking of males, and we use the same words in speaking of females. Now, although this is the case in English, it is not the case in all languages. In many languages the word *bold*, or *good*, would take one form when it was used to denote males, and another form when used to denote females. In the Latin language *vir* means *man* (the name of a male object), *mulier* means *woman* (the name of a female object), and *bon* means *good*. Now, if the Latin language were like the English, they would say *bon vir* = *good man; bon mulier* = *good woman*. But, as the Latin is unlike the English, they do not say

so. The Latin phrase is *bon-us vir* = *good man*, *bon-a mulier* = *good woman;* that is, the letter *a* is added if the substantive be the name of a female, and the letters *us* are added if it be the name of a male. Again, if the English language were the same in this respect as the Latin, we should say, *good-us man* = *good man* (*bonus vir*), *good-a woman* (*bona mulier*). This difference between the English and Latin must be kept in mind.

Again: if we wish to speak of more *lions* or of more *fathers* than one, we say *lion-s, father-s;* that is, we add the letter *s* to the words *lion* and *father* (the names of male objects). And if we wish to speak of more *lionesses* or *mothers* than one, we do just the same; that is, we add the letter *s* (or *es* after the sound *s*) to the words *lioness* and *mother* (the names of female objects). In other words, whether the substantive be the name of a male, or the name of a female, the letter added is one and the same, viz. the letter *s*. So, also, we say *the father's son* and *the mother's son; the lion's whelp* and *the lioness's whelp;* that is, whether the word be the name of a male or a female, we add *s* indifferently. All this is different in the Latin. In that language *dominus* means a *master*, and *domina* means a *mistress; domini* means *of a master, dominæ, of a mistress; domini* means *masters; dominæ, mistresses.* Now the last letters of the words *domin-æ* and *domin-i* differ; and they differ because one word is the name of a male, and the other the name of a female. If the English language were the same in this respect as the Latin, we should say *lion-i* for *lions*, and *lion-æ* for *lioness-es*, which we do not. From this we learn that, in respect to the expres-

sion of a difference of sex, there is something to be
found in the Latin language which is wholly or partially
wanting in the English. This we may call the Gram-
matical Expression of the difference of Sex ; or Gen-
der.

§ 113. *Masculine, Feminine, Neuter.* — In words like
boy and *girl* the first word is the name of a male object,
the second of a female one. In grammar, however,
instead of saying that the word *boy* is a *male* word, and
the word *girl* a *female* word, we use the terms Mascu-
line and Feminine ; and we say that *boy* is a word of
the *Masculine* Gender, and *girl* a word of the *Feminine*
Gender. But besides such objects as *boys* and *girls*,
which are either male or female, there are in the world
a vast number of objects, such as *swords, bows, shoes,
iron,* &c., that are neither male nor female. These
objects have names, and these names are very often
neither Masculine nor Feminine. Words of this sort,
that are neither Masculine nor Feminine, are said to be
of the Neuter Gender. We may say, then, that there
are three Genders ; the Masculine, the Feminine, and
the Neuter. The Masculine denotes males ; the Fem-
inine, females ; and the Neuter, *things,* or objects that
are neither male nor female. We can now apply this
to the words mentioned above.

§ 114. In the English Substantives and Adjectives,
there is *no* distinction of Gender. In Anglo-Saxon,
however, this distinction existed.

§ 115. *Number.* — In the following phrases we speak
of a single object ; that is, of one object and of no more
than one : *a father, my father, this father, one father ;
a son, my son, this son, one son ; a horse, this horse,*

that horse, *my horse*, *one horse*.   In this case the words
father, *son*, and *horse* appear in a simple form, without
the addition of any letter or syllable whatsoever.   This
is not the case with the words in the list forthcoming :
these father-s, these son-s, these hors-es, &c.   Here we
speak of more objects than one ; that is, of *two* (or more)
fathers, of *two* (or more) *sons*, and of *two* (or more)
horses.   In this case the letter *s* is added to the words
father, *son*, and *horse* respectively.   Now in the Latin
language the word *singularis* means *single ;* so that the
forms without *s*, such as *father*, *son*, and *horse*, denoting
respectively *one father*, *one son*, *one horse*, and no more,
are called *Singular* forms, and are said to be in the
Singular Number.   On the other hand, in the Latin
language the words *plus* and *pluralis* mean *more* or
many ; so that the form with *s*, like *father-s, son-s,* and
hors-es, denoting respectively *two* (or more) *fathers*, *two*
(or more) *sons*, *two* (or more) *horses*, are called *Plural*
forms, or are said to be in the *Plural* Number.   In the
English language we may therefore say that there are
two numbers, the Singular and the Plural.   The Singu-
lar speaks of one (*a father*), and the Plural speaks of
more than one (*fathers, books*).

§ 116. The Plural Number is formed from the Sin-
gular, and not the Singular from the Plural.   The words
horses, fathers, &c. are formed from *horse* and *father*,
and not *vice versâ*.

§ 117. In most words in English, the plural number
is, in the spoken language, formed from the singular by
the addition of the sound of the *s* in *seal*, of the *z* in
zeal, or of the syllable *ez ;* as *stag-z, stack-s, stag-ez*
(from *stage*).

§ **118.** The plural number is expressed in the written language by the letter *s*, or by the syllable *es*. The letter *z* and the syllable *ez*, although sounded, are never written. This, however, is a matter of orthography, not of etymology. See § 46 and § 47, *stag-s, stack-s, stag-es.*

§ **119.** Which of the three additions (*z*, *s*, or *ez*) be the one adopted, depends upon the nature of the last sound of the singular. See §§ 46, 47.

§ **120.** If the last sound of the singular be that of the letter *s*, or *z*, or of the *sh* in *shine*, or of the *z* in *azure*, the addition is that of the sound of the syllable *ez* (spelt *es*) ; as *loss-ez, kiss-ez, blaz-ez, haz-ez, blush-ez, lash-ez,* spelt *loss-es, kiss-es, blaz-es, haz-es, blush-es, lash-es.*

Observe. — Words ending in the sound of the *ch* in *chest*, and the *j* in *jest*, really end in *sh* and *zh* (§ 41), and form their plurals accordingly ; as *church* (*churtsh*), *church-ez* ; *crutch* (*crutsh*), *crutch-ez* ; *witch* (*witsh*), *witch-ez* ; *judge* (*judzh*), *judg-ez* ; *barge* (*bardzh*), *barg-ez* ; spelt *church-es, crutch-es, witch-es, judg-es, barg-es.*

Observe. — As the sound of the letter *x* is equivalent to that of *ks* (or *cks*, or *cs*), words ending in that letter really end in *s*, and form their plurals accordingly ; as *box* (*bocks*), *box-ez* (*bocks-ez*) ; *fox* (*focks*), *fox-ez* (*focks-ez*) ; spelt *box-es, fox-es,* &c.

§ **121.** If the last sound of the singular be that of a sharp mute (not *s* or *sh*), the sound added to it in order to form the plural is that of the letter *s* in *seal ;* as *top, top-s ; muff, muff-s ; cat, cat-s ; moth, moth-s ; stack, stack-s.* (See § 46.)

§ 122. If the last sound of the singular be that of a flat mute (not *z* or *zh*), a liquid, or a vowel, the sound added to it in order to form the plural is that of the *z* in *zeal;* as *slab, slab-z; slave, slav-z; lad lad-z; dog, dog-z; hill, hill-z; drum, drum-z; hen, hen-z; bar, bar-z; day, day-z; flea, flea-z; bow, bow-z;* spelt *slab-s, slave-s, lad-s, dog-s, hill-s, drum-s, hen-s, bar-s, day-s, flea-s, bow-s.*

§ 123. Having gone through the details given above, we are now enabled to give the rule for the formation of the plural in more general language. We can now say that the greater part of the English plurals are formed *by the addition of the sound of* s, *modified according to the termination of the singular.*

§ 124. *Plural of Certain Words in* f. — The following words end in the sound of the sharp mute *f : loaf, half, wife, life, calf, leaf.* Now, according to § 121, their plurals should be formed by the addition of the sound of *s* in *seal,* and so be *loafs, halfs, wifes, lifes, calfs, leafs* (pronounced *loafce, halfce, wifce, lifce, calfce, leafce*). This, however, is not the case. Their plurals are formed by the addition of the sound of *z* in *zeal,* and are *loaves, halves, wives, lives, calves, leaves* (pronounced *loavz, halvz, wivz, livz, calvz, leavz*) ; the sound of the *f* being changed into that of *v.* Respecting these words we must observe : —

1. That the vowel before *f* is *long.* Words like *muff,* where the vowel is short, form their plurals by means of the sound of the *s* in *seal ;* as *muff, muff-s* (pronounced *muffce*).

2. That they are all of Anglo-Saxon origin. In the words *mischief, chief, handkerchief, grief, relief,* the

plural is formed as in *muff;* that is, by the addition of
the sound of *s;* as *mischiefs, chiefs,* &c.

Putting these two facts together, we can use more
general language, and say that,

When a word ends in the sound of *f,* preceded
by a long vowel, and is of Anglo-Saxon origin, the
plural is formed by the addition of the sound of the
z in *zeal.*

To this rule there are two exceptions : —

1. *Dwarf;* a word of Anglo-Saxon origin, but which
forms its plural by means of the sound of *s,* — *dwarfs*
(pronounced *dwarfce*).

2. *Beef;* a word *not* of Anglo-Saxon origin, but
which forms its plural by means of the sound of *z,* —
beeves (pronounced *beevz*).

If we ask the reason of this peculiarity in the for-
mation of the plurals of these words in *f,* we shall find
reason to believe that it lies with the singular rather
than the plural forms. In Anglo-Saxon, *f* at the end
of a word was sounded as *v;* and it is highly probable
that the original *singulars* were sounded *loav, halv,
wive, calv, leav.*

§ 125. *Plural forms in* ce. — 1. According to § 122,
the word *penny* should form its plural by means of the
sound of the *z* in *zeal.* It does so, and, consequently,
there is the plural form *pennies* (*penniz*) ; but, besides
this, there is the form *pence.*

Now there are two plurals to the word *penny,* be-
cause there are two meanings. *Six pennies* means *six
separate penny-pieces.* *Six pence* (or *sixpence*) means *a
single coin equivalent to six penny-pieces.* This last
sense is collective rather than plural.

The plural *pence* has a further peculiarity. According to § 122, it ought to end in the sound of *z* in *zeal*, which it does not; it ends in the sound of *s* in *seal*. This serves to distinguish it from the plural of *pen*, which is *penz* (spelt *pens*).

2. *Dice.* — This word ends in the sound of *s* in *seal*, when, according to § 122, it should end in the sound of *z* in *zeal*. This serves to distinguish *dice* for play from *dies* (*diez*) for coining.

§ 126. *Equivocal Forms from Singulars in* s. — The number of the following words has always been a matter of discussion amongst grammarians : —

1. *Alms.* — Some say, *these alms* are *useful;* in which case the word *alms* is plural. Others say, *this alms* is *useful;* in which case the word *alms* is singular. Now in the word *alms* the *s* is no sign of the plural number, but part of the original singular, like the *s* in *goose* or *loss*. The Anglo-Saxon form was *ælmesse*. Notwithstanding this, we cannot say *alms-es* in the same way that we *can* say *loss-es*. Hence the word *alms* is, in respect to its original form, singular; in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural.

2. *Riches.* — Most writers say, *riches* are *useful;* in which case the word *riches* is plural. Still there are a few who say, *riches* is *useful;* in which case the word *riches* is singular. Now in the word *riches* the *s* is no sign of the plural number, since there is no such *substantive* as *rich;* on the contrary, it is part of the original singular, like the *s* in *distress*. The form in the original French, from which language it was derived, is *richesse*. Notwithstanding this, we cannot say *richess-es* in the same way that we *can* say *distress-es*.

Hence the word *riches* is, in respect to its original form, singular; in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural; most frequently the latter.

3. *News.* — Some say, *this news* is *good;* in which case the word *news* is singular. More rarely we find the expression, *these news* are *good;* in which case the word *news* is plural. Now in the word *news* the *s* (unlike the *s* in *alms* and *riches*) is no part of the original singular, but the sign of the plural, like the *s* in *trees.* Notwithstanding this, we cannot substract the *s*, and say *new*, in the same way that we *can* form *tree* from *trees.* Hence the word *news* is, in respect to its original form, plural; in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural; most frequently the former.

4. *Means.* — Some say, *these means* are *useful:* in which case the words *means* is plural. Others say, *this means* is *useful;* in which case the word *means* is singular. Now in the word *means* the *s* (unlike the *s* in *alms* and *riches*, but like the *s* in *news*) is no part of the original singular, but the sign of the plural, like the *s* in *trees.* The form in the original French, from which language the word is derived, is *moyen*, singular; *moyens*, plural. If we subtract from the word *means* the letter *s*, we say *mean.* Now, as a singular form of the word *means*, with the sense it has in the phrase *ways and means*, there is, in the current English, no such word as *mean*, any more than there is such a word as *new* from *news.* But, in a different sense, there *is* the singular form *mean;* as in the phrase *the golden mean*, meaning *middle course.* Hence the word *means* is, in respect to its form, plural; in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural.

5. *Pains.* — Some say, *these pains* are *well taken ;* in which case the word *pains* is plural. Others say, *this pains* is *well taken ;* in which case the word *pains* is singular. The form in the original French, from which language the word is derived, is *peine.* The reasoning that has been applied to the word *means* is closely applicable to the word *pains.*

6. The same also applies to the word *amends.* The form in French is *amende*, without the *s*.

7. *Mathematics, Physics, Metaphysics, Optics, Politics, Ethics, Pneumatics, Hydraulics, Hydrostatics, Mechanics, Dynamics, Statics.* — All these words are plural in form ; in sense they are either singular or plural.

§ 127. The words just noticed may be called Equivocal Forms. In words like *alms* and *riches* the original *s* of the singular is confounded with the *s*, the sign of the plural. In the remainder the *s*, the sign of the plural, is taken for a part of the original singular. This confusion prevents the words in point from having either true singulars, like *new, mean, pain ;* or true plurals, like *riches-es, alms-es.*

If the reason of this confusion be inquired into, it will be found, —

1. That all the words in question are of foreign origin.

2. That in sense they are partly singular and partly plural. *Alms* means either *a number of separate donations taken severally*, or *a number of separate donations dealt with as a single act of charity.* In the first case the plural, in the second the singular sense predominates.

§ 128. *Plurals not ending in* s. — Besides the usual plural forms in *s* (*father-s*, *son-s*), there are four other methods in English of expressing a *number* of objects.

1. By the change of vowel.

2. By the addition of *en* or *n*.

3. By the addition of *er* or *r*.

4. By a combination of two of the preceding methods.

§ 129. *Plurals formed by a Change of Vowel.* — This class consists in the present English of the following words : —

1. *Man*, singular ; *men*, plural. The vowel *a* changed to the vowel *e*.

2. *Foot*, singular ; *feet*, plural. The vowel *oo* (sounded as the *ou* in *could*) changed to the vowel *ee*.

3, 4. *Tooth*, singular ; *teeth*, plural : *goose*, singular ; *geese*, plural. The vowel *oo* (as in *food*) changed to *ee* (as in *feet*).

5, 6. *Mouse*, *louse*, singular ; *mice*, *lice*, plural. The diphthong *ou* changed to the vowel *i* (as in *night*). The combination *ce* is used instead of *se*, for the same reason as in *pence* and *dice;* i. e. lest, if written *mise*, *lise*, the words should be pronounced *mize*, *lize*.

Kye, used in Scotland for cows, is of the same class. Anglo-Saxon, *cú* cow, *cý*, cows.

§ 130. *Plurals formed by the Addition of* en *or* n. — In the present English the word *oxen* is the only specimen of this form in current use. In the older stages of our language the number of plurals in *en* was much greater than at present.

hos-en	= hose or stockings
shoo-n	= shoe-s
ey-en	= eye-s

bischop-en = bishop-s
eldr-en = elder-s
arw-en = arrow-s
scher-en = shire-s
doghtr-en = daughter-s
sustr-en = sister-s
uncl-en = uncle-s
tre-en = tree-s
souldr-en = soldier-s

§ 131. *Plurals formed by the Addition of* er. — In the Anglo-Saxon the four following plurals are found: *cealf-ru = calves*, *lamb-ru = lambs*, *egg-ru = eggs*, *cild-ru,* = *children*. The peculiarity of these is, that they are formed in *r*. They are all words of the neuter gender. In certain of the provinces of England the plural form *child-er* still exists. This form, although absent in the current English, is necessary to be observed, since it is the basis of the word *child-r-en*. The origin of this *r* is not satisfactorily determined.

§ 132. *Plurals formed by a Combination, &c.* — Three words occur in this class.

1. *Kine = cows;* a plural formed from a plural by the addition of *n;* as *cow*, *kye*, *kyne* (*kine*). A combination of methods 1 and 2. (See § 128.)

2. *Children;* a plural formed from a plural by the addition of *en;* as *child*, *child-er*, *child-er-en = children*. A combination of methods 3 and 2.

3. *Brethren;* a plural formed from a plural by the addition of *en;* as *brother*, *brethre ?*, *brethr-en = brethren*. A combination of methods 1 and 3.

§ 133. *Current and Obsolete Processes.* — The present is a proper time for exhibiting the difference be-

tween the current and the obsolete processes of a language.

By adding the sound of the *s* in *seal* to the the word *father*, we change it into *father-s*. Hence the addition of the sound in question is the process by which the word *father* is changed into *fathers*. Such is the nature of a process in language. The process by which *ox* is changed into *ox-en* is the addition of the syllable *en*. The words *father* and *ox* are said to be affected by a certain process; and, as they are affected, the language of which they form a part is affected also.

In all languages there are two sorts of processes, those that are in operation at a certain period, and those that have ceased to operate.

In illustration of this, let us suppose that, from the Latin, Greek, French, or some other language, a new word is introduced into the English; and that this word is a substantive of the singular number. Suppose the word was *teck*, and that it meant a sort of *dwelling-house*. In the course of time it would be necessary to use this word in the plural; and the question would arise as to the manner in which that number should be formed.

Now there are three simple forms of the plural in English, and consequently three processes by which a singular may be converted into a plural : —

    1. The addition of the sound of *s*, *z*, or *ez* (*es*).

    2. The change of vowel.

    3. The addition of *n*.

Notwithstanding this, it is very certain that the plural of a new word would *not* be formed in *en* (like *oxen*), nor yet by a change of vowel (like *feet*) ; but by addi-

tion of the sound of *s*, *z*, or *ez* (like *stack-s*, *dog-z*, *loss-ez*, spelt *stack-s*, *dog-s*, *loss-es*).

This shows that the processes by which *ox* is changed into *ox-en*, *foot* into *feet*, and *child* into *child-ren*, are no longer in operation ; in other words, that they are *obsolete ;* whilst the process that changes *father* into *father-s* is still in operation ; in other words, *current*.

With each and all of the forms in grammar, as they successively present themselves, we should ask whether they were brought about by a current process, or by an obsolete one.

§ 134. *Case.* — It is necessary to understand the meaning of the following words, — *Case*, *Nominative*, *Accusative*, *Dative*, *Objective*, and *Possessive*. This we can do by the examination of certain propositions. (§ 89, &c.) *He is striking him.* — These words form a proposition, of which *he* is the subject, *is* the copula, and *striking him* the predicate. Now *he* and *him*, although the same parts of speech, of the same gender, and of the same number, appear in different forms. In one there is the presence, in the other the absence, of the letter *m* (*he*, *hi-m*). The reason of this is that the two words are in different cases. The same takes place with *they are striking them*. We cannot say, *him is striking he*, nor yet, *them is striking they*. We cannot even say, *him is striking*, *them are striking*. If we examine further, we shall find that *he* and *they* can, by themselves, form terms ; since we can say, *he is striking* (where *he* by itself is the subject) ; and since we can also say, *this is he*, and *these are they* (where *he* and *they* by themselves constitute predicates). On the other hand, *him* and *them* can only form *parts* of terms ; as,

he is striking them, they are striking him.   Such is the
difference in meaning between the words *he* and *him.*

§ 135. When words differ from each other in mean-
ing in the way that *he* and *him*, *they* and *them*, differ, it
is the habit, more or less, of languages to express this
difference of meaning by a difference of form.   This
is done in the words just quoted ; where *he* and *they*
take one form, and *him* and *them* another.   Differences
of this sort, expressed by difference of form, are said
to constitute Cases.   The word *he* is in one case, the
word *him* in another case.   So it is also with *they* and
them.

§ 136. A noun is said to be in the Nominative Case
when it by itself constitutes a term.   The words *he*
and *father* are Nominative Cases ; since we can say, *he
is speaking, father is coming, this is he, this is father.*

§ 137. A noun is said to be in the Accusative Case
when, taken along with a verb, the verb and it together
form a logical term.   *The sun* (subject) *is* (copula)
warming him (predicate).   Here the words *warming
him* form, by themselves, a term.

§ 138. *He is going London.* — In this proposition *he*
is the subject, *is* the copula, *going London* the predicate.
Now the words *going London* give no sense, that is, the
word *London* is not in the same relation to *going* as
him in the sentence just quoted was to *warming.*   Add,
however, the word *to* and the sense is good = *He is
going to London.*   Now the word *London* in this sen-
tence, unlike the words *he* and *him*, has no distinguish-
ing peculiarity of form.   If, instead of *London*, it was
London-e or *London-o*, it would form a case, and that
case would be called a Dative.

§ 139. *They fought with a sword.* — Here there is the substantive *sword* accompanied by the word *with*. In many languages, however, the word *with* would be omitted, and the word *sword* change its form. The Anglo-Saxon for *they fought with the sword*, was *feohton sweord-e*, where no such word as *with* appeared in the sentence, but where the additional syllable *e* served instead. This constituted in Anglo-Saxon a particular case.

§ 140. *This is a picture of John.* — Here there is the substantive *John* accompanied by the word *of*. In many languages, however, the word *of* (or its equivalent) would be omitted, and the word *John* would change its form. This would constitute a fresh case. The meaning of the sentence, *this is a picture of John*, is, *this is a picture of which John is the subject* (or *original*).

§ 141. *This is John's picture.* — Here the word *John's* is unaccompanied by any word of the nature of *to*, *with*, or *of*. Instead of an accompaniment, it has undergone a change in form. The word *John* has been changed into *John's*. Here a true case is constituted.

Now the meaning of the sentence, *this is John's picture*, is, *this is a picture in the possession of John*. The idea of possession is expressed by the addition of the sound of the letter *s* (*John*, *John's*). Hence *John's* is an example of what is called the Possessive Case.

§ 142. The words *to*, *with*, *of*, and several other words like them, are called Prepositions.

§ 143. The cases in the present English are three : —

1. Nominative : *father*, *he.*
2. Objective : *him.*
3. Possessive : *his, father's.*

The Objective Case in English is equivalent to the Accusative of other languages ; and it is also the case that follows prepositions ; as, *he struck him ; he gave the book to him ; he took the book from him.*

The Objective Case and the preposition *to* are equivalent to the Dative Case of other languages.

§ 144. The *substantives* in English have only two out of the three cases ; as there is no difference in form between a word with the sense of a nominative and a word with the sense of an objective case. We say *the father teaches the son*, or *the son teaches the father.* Hence the words *son* and *father* are either objective or nominative, as the case may be.

§ 145. The Possessive Case singular is formed in the spoken language from the nominative (or objective) case, in the same way as the nominative plural is formed from the singular. (See § 117, &c.)

Such is the rule, to which there is only one class of exceptions. Words in *f* (§ 124) form their possessive case in the sound of *s* in *seal ;* as *loaf's, wife's, calf's, leaf's*, &c. ; sounded *loafce, wifce, calfce, leafce*, and not *loavz, wivz, calvz, leavz.* We say, *the wives are good-tempered*, but *the wife's temper is good ; the loaves are well baked*, but *the loaf's baking is good ; the calves are well fed*, but *the calf's feeding is good ; the leaves are changing color*, but *the leaf's color is changing.*

§ 146. The possessive case singular is distinguished, in the language as it is written, from the nominative (or

objective) case plural by the insertion of an apostrophe (') between the last letter of the original word and the letter *s*; as *father*, *father's*, *fathers*; *the father's son*; *the fathers are speaking*. This, however, is merely a point of spelling. It does not affect the spoken language.

Although at the present time identical, the possessive case singular and the nominative case plural were originally distinct. The first ended in *-es*, as *endes*, *end's*; the second in *as*, as *end-as*, *ends*. The ejection of the vowels (*a* and *e*) reduces the two words to the same form.

§ 147. The possessive case plural, when formed at all, is formed, in the spoken language, from the nominative case of the same number, in the same way as the possessive case singular is formed; that is, by the addition of the sound of *s*; as *children*, *children's*; *oxen*, *oxen's*; *the children's bread*; *the oxen's horns*.

§ 148. It is rare, however, that in the spoken language the possessive case plural differs at all from the nominative case plural. The reason of this may be seen in § 47. As the nominative plural generally ends in *s*, and as the possessive is also formed in *s*, there would be too many sounds of *s* accumulated in a single word; e. g. the possessive plural of *trees* would be *treeses*, and the possessive plural of *fox* would be *foxes-es*; as the *foxeses tails*. Hence, in the *spoken* language, the nominative and possessive cases plural are alike whenever the former ends in the sound of *s*.

§ 149. In the *written* language the difference between the nominative (or objective) case plural and the possessive case plural is expressed by the addition of

6

an apostrophe (') *after* the letter *s ; the trees are in leaf*, but *the trees' leaves are coming out ; the ships are in full sail*, but *the ships' sails are spread*.

THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 150. In the present English the Adjectives preserve the same form throughout both numbers and in all genders. Consequently they are destitute of case ; the objective, the nominative, and the possessive senses being expressed alike. — *A* good *man*, *a* good *woman*, *a* good *sword ; the* good *men*, *the* good *women*, *the* good *swords ; a* good *man's son*, *a* good *woman's son*, *a* good *sword's edge*.

§ 151. The only way in which adjectives change their form is in respect to the Degrees of Comparison.

§ 152. The adjective in its simple form is called the Positive Adjective. From the adjective in its Positive form are formed, 1. the Comparative ; 2. the Superlative Degree.

§ 153. The sign of the Comparative Degree is equivalent in meaning to the word *more*. In the word *bright-er* the syllable *er* is the sign of the Comparative Degree. The word *bright-er* is equivalent in meaning to *more bright*.

§ 154. The sign of the Superlative Degree is equivalent in meaning to the word *most*. In the word *bright-est* the syllable *est* is the sign of the Superlative Degree. Also the word *bright-est* is equivalent in meaning to the words *most bright*.

§ 155. The comparative degree is formed from the positive by the addition of the syllable *er* ; as *cold*, *cold-er ; rich, rich-er ; dry, dry-er ; low, low-er*. This

is the manner in which the greater part of the English comparatives are formed.

§ 156. The following positives have no comparative, and also no superlative forms : *good*, *bad*, *evil*, *ill*. There are in the current English no such words as *good-er*, *badd-er*, *evill-er*, *ill-er ;* or *good-est*, *badd-est*, *evill-est*, *ill-est*.

§ 157. The following comparatives (and superlatives) have no positive forms : *worse*, *worst ; better*, *best*. There are in the current English no such words as *wor* and *bett*.

§ 158. The comparative form *elder*. — The positive form *old* has two comparatives : (1.) the word *old-er ;* (2.) the word *eld-er*. A knowledge of the following facts will account for the form *elder*. In Anglo-Saxon there were several words which, beside the addition of the syllable *re* in the comparative degree, also changed the vowel of the positive.

A. S. Positive.	A. S. Comparative.	A. S. Superlative.	English.
Lang	Leng-re	Leng-est	*Long*
Strang	Streng-re	Streng-est	*Strong*
Geong	Gyng-re	Gyng-est	*Young*
Sceort	Scyrt-re	Scyrt-est	*Short*
Heáh	Hy-rre	Hyh-st	*High*
Eald	*Yld-re*	*Yld-est*	*Old*

The Anglo-Saxon form *yld-re* explains the English form *elder*. The word *elder* is often used as a substantive. We say, *the elders of the people*.

§ 159. *Latter*. — The word *late* has two forms for the comparative degree : (1.) *later*, (2.) *latter*. In the first the vowel is the *a* in *fate ;* in the second the *a* in *fat*.

§ 160. *More.* — *More* is etymologically connected with *much.* As late as the reign of Queen Elizabeth we find the positive form *moe.* From this *more* (*mo-er*) may be regularly derived.

§ 161. *Nether.* — The positive form *nith* is obsolete. It means *low.* From this the comparative form *neth-er* (in Anglo-Saxon *niðere*) is regularly derived. In phrases like *the Netherlands*, *the nether regions*, the word *nether* means *low*, or *lower.*

§ 162. *Better* is a regular comparative form, defective in the positive. No absolute positive degree is found in any of the allied languages, and in none of the allied languages is there found any comparative of *good.*

§ 163. *Near.* — This word, although in meaning an adjective of the positive degree, is in respect to its form a comparative. The *r* is no part of the original word. The Anglo-Saxon form is *neah* for the positive; *nea-rre*, *nea-r*, and *ny-r* for the comparative. Hence, —

§ 164. *Nearer* is, in respect to its form, a double comparative, *nea-r-er.*

§ 165. *Further.* — This means *more in front*, or *more forward.* It is derived from the word *fore*, as found in *foremost.* Besides the change of the vowel from *o* to *u* (*fore*, *fur-th-er*), there is the addition of the sound of *th.* This sound was inserted in an early stage of language. It occurs in the old High German forms *vor-d-aro*, *for-d-oro*, *vor-d-ero*, *for-d-ar*, *fur-d-ir*, and in the Anglo-Saxon *forð*, and English *forth.*

§ 166. *Farther.* — This means *more far*, or *more*

distant. It is derived from the word *far*, which appears in the following different forms : *fairra*, Mœso-Gothic ; *vërro*, *vër*, *fër*, Old High German ; *feor*, Anglo-Saxon ; *fiarri*, Old Norse. The proper comparative is formed without the *th;* as *vërr-ór*, *vërr-óro*, Old High German. In the English word *far-th-er* the *th* is inserted, either because *far-er* is inharmonious, or from the word being confounded with *fur-th-er*.

§ 167. *Former.* — A comparative from the Anglo-Saxon word *forma*, a word already in the superlative. For the insertion of the *m* (*for-m-er*) see § 179.

§ 168. The forms *less* and *worse* are too difficult to be explained here. We remark only that *less* is etymologically connected with *little*.

§ 169. The superlative degree may be formed from the positive by the addition of the syllable *est;* as *cold*, *cold-est ; rich*, *rich-est ; dry*, *dry-est ; low*, *low-est*. This is the manner in which the greater part of the English superlatives are formed.

§ 170. *Best, last.* — By comparing these with the words *bett-er* and *lat-er* (or *latt-er*), we discover that the sound of *t* has been lost. The full forms would be *bett-est* and *lat-est*.

§ 171. The forms *least* and *worst* are too difficult to be explained here.

§ 172. *First.* — A superlative from the original word *fore*, sup. *fir-st*.

§ 173. *Most.* — See § 160.

§ 174. *Nearest.* — See § 163.

§ 175. *Next.* — The superlative of *nigh*, contracted from *nighest*. The Anglo-Saxon forms were *neah*, *nyh-st, neh-st, nyh-ste*. In Anglo-Saxon the letter *h* was

pronounced strongly, and sounded like *g* or *k*. This fact is still shown in the spelling; as *n*igh. In the word *next* this sound is preserved, slightly changed into that of *k; next* = *nek-st.*

§ 176. *Furthest.* — See § 165.

§ 177. *Farthest.* — See § 166.

§ 178. *Eldest.* — See § 158.

§ 179. *Upmost*, &c. — Of superlatives in *most* two views may be taken.

First,[1] that they are compound words formed from simple ones by the addition of the superlative term *most*, as *up-most, in-most, out-most, hind-most, mid-most.*

Second,[2] that they are simple words formed by the addition of the superlative termination *st* to forms already superlative.

The Anglo-Saxon language presents us with the following forms : —

Anglo-Saxon.	English.
innema (inn-ema)	inmost (in-m-ost)
ûtema (ût-ema)	outmost (out-m-ost)
forma (for-ma)	foremost (fore-m-ost)
ufema (uf-ema)	upmost (up-m-ost)
hindema (hind-ema)	hindmost (hind-m-ost)
midema (mid-ema)	midmost (mid-m-ost).

Besides these, there are in the other allied languages words like *fruma* = *first* (Mœso-Gothic), *aftuma* = *last* (Mœso-Gothic), *miduma* = *middle* (Mœso-Gothic).

Now the words in question show at once, that, as far

---

[1] Rask.   [2] Grimm.

as they are concerned, the *m* that appears in the last syllable of each has nothing to do with the word *most*.

From the words in question there was formed, in Anglo-Saxon, a regular superlative form in the usual manner; viz. by the addition of *st*; as *æfte-m-est, fyr-m-est, yfe-m-est, ute-m-est, inne-m-est.*

According to this view, the different parts of the syllable *most* (in words like *upmost*) come from different quarters. The *m* is the *m* in the Anglo-Saxon words *innema*, &c.; whilst the *st* is the common sign of the superlative. Hence, in separating such words as *mid-most* into its component parts, we should write

mid-m-ost	*not*	mid-most
ut-m-ost	—	ut-most
up-m-ost	—	up-most
fore-m-ost	—	fore-m-ost
in-m-ost	—	in-most
hind-m-ost	—	hind-most
out-m-ost	—	out-most

§ 180. *Furthermost, uttermost, uppermost, outermost, innermost, hindermost, nethermost, aftermost.* — In these words there is an undoubted addition of *most*, and an excess of inflection, a superlative form being added to a word in the comparative degree.

PRONOUNS.

§ 181. Sections **104, 105** should now be carefully read over, and especial attention directed to the words " *name of an object.*" Section **93** should also be read.

A substantive is the name of some object; as *horse, man, father, son, goodness, animal.*

As the name of some object, a substantive is capable of forming both the subject and predicate of propositions.

But, besides the names of objects, there are other words capable of forming both the subjects and predicates of propositions.

These form a third class of nouns, and are called Pronouns.

I, thou, we, ye, he, she, they, this, that, these, those, &c., are Pronouns.

None of these are the *names* of objects.

The word *I*, taken by itself, is not the name of one object more than another. It varies in meaning with the person speaking. When *William* says *I*, it means *William*. When *Thomas* says *I*, it means *Thomas*. It denotes the speaker, whoever he may be ; but it is not the fixed name of any speaker whatever.

The word *thou*, taken by itself, is not the name of one object more than another. It varies in meaning with the person spoken to. When *thou* is said to William, it means *William*. When *thou* is said to *Thomas*, it means *Thomas*. It denotes the person spoken to, whoever he may be ; but it is not the fixed name of any person spoken to in particular.

The word *we*, taken by itself, is not the name of any persons in particular. It denotes the parties who are speaking ; and when a different party speaks, it denotes different persons.

The same principle applies to the word *ye*.

The word *he*, taken by itself, is not the name of one object more than another. It varies in meaning according to the person spoken of. When *he* is said in speak-

ing of *William*, it means *William*. When *he* is said in speaking of *Thomas*, it means *Thomas*.

The same view applies to *she*, *it*, and *they*.

The word *this*, taken by itself, is not the name of one object more than another. It varies in meaning according to the object spoken of. When applied to an object near one person, it means one thing. When applied to an object near another person, it means something else.

The same applies to *that*, *these*, and to several other words.

As none of the words above are the names of one object more than another, they are not *names* at all.

Notwithstanding this, they can, each and all, form both the subjects and predicates of propositions ; as, *I* am *he*, *thou* art *he*, *he* is *he*, *we* are *they*, *ye* are *they*, *they* are *they*, *I* am *the man*, *the man* is *he*, *this* is *the man*, *these* are *the women*, *the books* are *these*, &c.

Words that form by themselves both the subjects and predicates of propositions, and yet are not the names of objects, are called Pronouns.

§ 182. The first class of pronouns consists of what are called the true Personal Pronouns. These are of two sorts. 1. Those of the First Person, viz. *I*, *me*, *we*. 2. Those of the Second Person, viz. *thou*, *ye*.

Declension.

Pronouns of the First Person Singular.

1.		2.	
Nom.	*I*	Nom.	—
Poss.	—	Poss.	*my*
Obj.	—	Obj.	*me.*

3.

Pronouns of the First Person Plural.

Nom. *we*
Poss. *our*
Obj. *us.*

Pronouns of the Second Person Singular.

Nom. *thou*
Poss. *thy*
Obj. *thee.*

Pronouns of the Second Person Plural.

Nom. *ye* or *you*
Poss. *your*
Obj. *you* (or *ye*).

Remarks. — *I* undergoes no change of form. It occurs only as a nominative case. For its other cases the words *me* and *my* are substitutes.

Me and *my* were originally the same word (*me*, *meh*, or *mec* in Anglo-Saxon), and consequently constituted one and the same case, viz. the accusative. At present they form two cases ; *me* being an objective and *my* a possessive case.

Although much altered, the words *we*, *our*, and *us* are modifications of one and the same original form. The Danish forms are *vi*, *vor* = *we*, *our* ; and in Anglo-Saxon we find *user* and *ure* equally.

Thee and *thy* were originally one and the same word (þe, þeh, þec, Anglo-Saxon), and consequently constituted one and the same case, viz. the accusative. At

present they form two cases; *thee* being an objective, and *thy* a possessive case.

§ 183. *The Demonstrative Pronouns.* — The Demonstrative Pronouns derive their name from the Latin word *demonstro*, *I show*, or *point out*. The words *this* and *that* are used in pointing out objects, and for that reason are called Demonstrative. All the pronouns included in this class are not, in the present stage of the English language, so thoroughly demonstrative as the words *this* and *that* (*this man*, *that horse*). Still they are more or less of that character.

§ 184. The Demonstrative Pronouns are of three sorts : — 1. Demonstrative Pronouns partaking of the nature of Personal Pronouns ; *he*, *she*. 2. True Demonstrative Pronouns ; *this*, *that*. 3. The Definite Article *the*.

§ 185. 1. *Demonstrative Pronouns partaking of the nature of Personal Pronouns.* — These are generally called Personal Pronouns of the Third Person. The reasons for changing their denomination are given in the author's work on the English Language.[1] Their number is two : 1. *he ;* 2. *she.*

DECLENSION.

1.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Nom. *he*	—	*it*
Poss. *his*	*her*	*its*
Obj. *him*	*her*	*it.*

[1] In § 182 of the second, or § 300 of the third edition.

2.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Nom. —	*she*	—
Poss. —	—	—
Obj. —	—	—

Remarks. — (1.) *His* (*hi-s*) now and originally a true possessive. In Anglo-Saxon, however, and until the reign of Elizabeth, it was common to both the masculine and neuter genders.[1] (2.) *Him*, originally a dative common to the masculine and neuter genders; now an objective case, and restricted to masculines only (*hi-m*). (3.) *Her* (*he-r*), originally *hire*, or *hyre*, used in Anglo-Saxon either as a dative or a possessive; used in modern English as a possessive (*her book*), or an objective (*he led her*). (4.) *It;* a true form for the neuter gender, of which the letter *t* was the sign. The form in Anglo-Saxon was *hit* (*hi-t*). The loss of the *h* has done much to disguise the nature of the present word (*it*), which is a true formation from *he.* (5.) *Its;* a possessive irregularly formed. The sign of the possessive case is *added* to the sign of the neuter gender, instead of being put in the place of it. *Its* is a recent form. It is rarely found in the writers of Queen Elizabeth's reign; never, according to Mr. Guest, in the Bible, and only occasionally in the dramatic authors. To understand more thoroughly the irregularity in the word *its*, we may compare it with the word *whose.* Had *whose* been formed on the same principle, we should have had in our language the word *wha-t-s* as a possessive case.

---

[1] *If the salt have lost* his *flavor, wherewith shall it be seasoned.*

The Anglo-Saxon declension of the word *he* was as follows. The parts that are absent from the present English are printed in Italics.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Plural, all Genders.
Nom.	he	*heo*	hit	*hi*
Poss.	his	hire	his	*hira*
Dat.	him	hire	him	*him*
Acc. or *Obj.*	*hine*	*hi*	hit	*hi.*

Obs. All of the plural forms are lost.

She occurs only as a nominative case, undergoing no change of form. For its other case the word *her* is employed in the singular, and the words *they*, *their*, and *them* in the plural number.

§ 186. 2. *True Demonstrative Pronouns.* — Under this class come the two words *this* and *that*.

§ 187. THIS. — This word appears in two forms: nominative singular, *this;* nominative plural, *these*. In Anglo-Saxon it was declined as fully as the word *he*. (See § 185.)[1]

§ 188. THAT. — Originally a true form for the neuter singular (nominative and objective), of which *t* (as in *it*) was the sign, — *tha-t*. In Anglo-Saxon it was declined as fully as the word *this* (see § 187). At present its declension is limited. In the singular number it is undeclined. In the plural it takes two distinct forms.[1]

First form. — Nominative and objective plural, *those*. This is the plural of *that* when it preserves its true demonstrative sense, and when it is opposed to *these;* e. g. *these men, those horses.*

---

[1] But see *English Language*, §§ 301, 302 (3d ed.).

Second form. — Nominative *they*, possessive *their*, objective *them*. This is the plural of *that* when its plural forms are used instead of the lost plural forms of *he* (see § 185), and when they take the sense of the demonstrative pronouns partaking of the nature of personal pronouns. (See § 185.)

§ 189. 3. *The Definite Article.* — The (*the man*, *the men*), undeclined. In Anglo-Saxon the article was fully declined, but an indeclinable form þe was also used for all cases of the article, from which our English *the*.

In expressions like *all the more, all the better* = *more by all that, better by all that*, the *the* has a different origin. It represents the Anglo-Saxon þy, and signifies *by that*.

§ 190. *The true Possessive Pronouns.* — *This is my book ; this is a book of mine.* In each of these propositions we make an assertion as to the nature of a *book*. We state what the book is in regard to ownership or possession. We assert that it is *my book*, that it is a book belonging to *me*, that it is a book of *mine*, and not any other person's. In this case the words *my* and *mine* denote possession ; and, as they are pronouns, they may be called Possessive Pronouns. The same applies to *thy* and *thine*, *her* and *hers*, *our* and *ours*, *your* and *yours*, *their* and *theirs*. *This is thy book ; this is a book of thine ;* and so on throughout.

Between, however, the words *my*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, *her*, and *their*, on one side, and *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*, on the other side, there is the following difference. *My*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, *her*, and *their* signify possession, because they are possessive *cases*. They cannot, however, be called true Possessive Pronouns,

because it is only in one particular form that they have that character; *me, thee, we, ye, they,* have no power of the kind. *Mine, thine, ours, yours, hers, theirs,* signify possession for a different reason. They partake of the nature of adjectives, and in all the allied languages are declined as such.

In opposition to the words *my, thy, our, your, her, their,* they may be called the true Possessive Pronouns. Respecting the difference between these two classes of words, more may be seen in the Syntax.[1] Those who are familiar with the classical languages may at once comprehend the distinction. *My* and *thy* are the equivalents of *mei* and *tui*; *mine* and *thine,* of *meus* (*mea, meum*) and *tuus* (*tua, tuum*); and, like *meus* (*mea, meum*) and *tuus* (*tua, tuum*), *mine* and *thine* were once declined. This last fact is conclusive as to their adjectival character.

§ 191. In treating of the structure of the true possessive pronouns, we must ask the following questions.

1. What is the kind of pronoun from which they are derived? *Mine* and *thine, ours* and *yours,* are derived from the true personal pronouns of the first and second persons respectively; *hers* and *theirs* from the demonstrative pronouns partaking of the nature of personal pronouns.

2. What is the number from which they are derived? *Ours, yours,* and *theirs* are derived from the plural forms *our, your,* and *their.*

§ 192. After this we must take the whole of the

---

[1] See Chap. XXXVII. of the 3d ed. of the *English Language.*

true possessive pronouns, six in number, and divide them into two classes.

1. The possessive pronouns in *n*. *Mine, thine.*

2. The possessive pronouns in *s*. *Ours, yours, hers, theirs.*

§ 193. *First Class.* — *Mine, thine.* In these forms the *n* is no part of the original word; *mi-n, thi-n.* Whether it had originally the power of a case and afterwards became adjectival is undetermined. The forms in *n*, confined to the true personal pronouns, and in them to the singular number, are of great antiquity. They occur in the Anglo-Saxon as *mín* and *þín*, and by some grammarians are dealt with as cases. Like *meus* and *tuus* in Latin, they were declined; e. g. *mín, míne, minne, minum, minra.*

Second Class. — Forms in *s*, — comprising the possessives derived from the demonstrative pronouns partaking of the nature of personal ones, and from the true personal pronouns *when in the plural number;* — *hers, theirs, ours, yours;* or *her-s, their-s, our-s, your-s;* or (the analysis being carried further still), *he-r-s, thei-r-s, ou-r-s, you-r-s.* Although adjectival in meaning, these *forms originated as cases;* and that since the Anglo-Saxon period. The *s* is the *s* of the genitive case; so that, in these words, we have a case formed from a case.

§ 194. *The Interrogative Pronouns.* — If we say, *who is this? whose book is this? what is this? whom do you speak to?* we ask so many questions. The Latin word for *to question* is *interrogare.* The words *who, whom, what, whose,* are pronouns. Being used in asking questions, they are called Interrogative Pronouns.

What, *whose*, *whom*, are all cases of the word *who*, which is declined like *he*. Nominative masculine, *who*; nominative neuter, *what* (*wha-t*); possessive, *whose*, (*who-s*); objective, *whom* (*who-m*). For the true nature of *which*, see § 200.

§ 195. It may be seen that the pronouns have more cases than the substantives. Besides the possessive forms in *s*, such as *hi-s*, *who-se*, *our-s*, &c., there is a distinction between the nominative and objective forms. Nominative, *he*, *they*, *who*. Objective, *him*, *them*, *whom*, *her*.

§ 196. It may also be seen, that in the pronouns are preserved vestiges of a grammatical expression of gender. *I-t*, *tha-t*, and *wha-t* are true neuter signs; *t* being the original sign of the neuter gender. In the present Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Icelandic, and in the Old Norse and Mœso-Gothic, all neuter adjectives end in *t*.

§ 197. With three exceptions, the pronouns exhibited above are the only ones whereof there is any declension. The rest are wholly undeclined, except, —

§ 198. 1. *One.* — When the word means *people at large*, and so has a general signification, it is declined like a substantive. Nominative singular, *one*; possessive, *one's*; nominative plural, *ones*. Examples: *one is apt to love one's self; my wife and little ones are well.*

With respect to the word *one*, at least when used in the singular for *people at large*, it must be observed that it has nothing to do with the number *one*, or 1. It is derived from the French word *on* (as in *on dit*), which in its older forms is *om*, *omme*, *homme*; and which originates in the Latin word *homo* = *a man*. Instead

7

of *one says*, the Germans at the present moment say, *man sagt*, or, *man says*. And the Anglo-Saxon had a similar form.

§ 199. 2. *Other.* — Declined like *father*. *This is that man's, that is the other's. The others are coming.*

3. *Self.* — Declined like *leaf*. Plural, *ourselves*, *yourselves*. The genitive form *self's* is not found, although there is no reason why it should not occur in phrases like the following. Question : — *Are you sure this is your own property?* Answer : — *Yes! I am sure it is my own self's.*

§ 200. The present is a proper place for explaining the true nature of the word *which*. The general opinion is that it is the neuter of *who*. Now it is a neuter in *meaning* only ; and that not always. The true neuter *form* of *who* is *wha-t*. *Which* is a *compound* word, formed out of the word *who* and the word *like*. Thus we have in Mœso-Gothic, *hvê-leiks* ; Old High German, *huë-lih* ; Anglo-Saxon, *hwi-lc* ; Old Frisian, *hwe-lik* ; German, *we-lch* ; Lowland Scotch, *whi-lk* ; English, *whi-ch* (the *l* being softened down and lost).

The same is the case with the word *such*. Mœso-Gothic, *sva-leiks* ; Old High German, *sô-lih* ; Old Saxon, *su-lic* ; Anglo-Saxon, *swi-lc* ; German, *sol-ch* ; English, *su-ch*.

THE NUMERALS.

§ 201. *Cardinal Numbers.* — It rarely happens that the cardinal numbers (*one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, &c.) are in any language declined throughout. The word *one* is naturally singular, so that it has no need of taking any particular form in order to distinguish it from a plural.

In like manner, the rest of the numbers are naturally plural, so that words like *five* and *six* have no need of taking any particular form to distinguish them from singulars. These facts do away with the necessity of any forms expressive of number. The expression of case and gender is not so naturally superfluous; and hence in many languages the earlier numerals are declined. In the present English all the cardinals are undeclined. One antiquated word, however, preserves a trace of an earlier Anglo-Saxon declension. The word *twain* was originally the accusative masculine of *twá* (*twá-n*, Anglo-Saxon, *twegen*). It may be interesting to be informed that the original accusative form in Anglo-Saxon for adjectives and pronouns in the masculine gender and singular number ended in *-n*, or *-ne*, and that the original accusative forms of *he* and *who* were not *him* and *whom* (*hi-m*, *hvœ-m*), but *hine* and *hwœne* (*hi-ne*, *hwœ-ne*). The forms in *m* that are at present current as objective cases (*him* and *whom*) were originally datives. *Him* in Anglo-Saxon meant *to him*, and *hwœm* in Anglo-Saxon meant *to whom*. The word *twain*, then, is of interest, inasmuch as it is the only word wherein the original Anglo-Saxon accusative ending is preserved.

§ 202. *Ordinal Numbers.* — The cardinal number *one* had no corresponding ordinal form derived from it. The word *first* is a superlative form derived from the root *fore*. There is no such word as *on-th*.

The cardinal number *two* has no corresponding ordinal form derived from it. The word *second* is derived from the Latin *secundus*. There is no such word as *two-th*.

The remainder of the cardinal numerals have corresponding ordinals derived from them.

Cardinal.				Ordinal.
Three	.	.	.	Thir-d.
Four	.	.	.	Four-th.
Five	.	.	.	Fif-th.
Six	.	.	.	Six-th.
Seven	.	.	.	Seven-th, &c.

The ordinal form is derived from the cardinal by the addition of the sound *th*,[1] subject to slight variations. In *third*, *th* becomes *d*, and there is a transposition of the letter *r*. In *fifth*, the vowel is shortened.

THE VERB.

§ 203. The verbs fall into two divisions. The first contains the Verb Substantive. The second contains the Common Verbs, or, speaking simply, the Verbs.

§ 204. The §§ 95 – 99 should now be read attentively. Words that, by themselves, form the copulas of propositions, are called Verbs Substantive; e. g. *I* am *speaking*, *thou* art *writing*, *he* is *singing*, *she* is *playing*, *it* is *burning*, *we* are *speaking*, *ye* are *singing*, *they* are *playing*, *summer* is *coming*, *winter* is *departing*, *the horses* are *feeding*, *the sun* is *shining brightly*, *the rain* is *falling fast this morning*, *I* was *moving*, *we* were *speaking*, &c. In all these sentences the words *am*, *art*, *is*, *are*, *was*, and *were*, constitute by themselves copulas; that is, they connect the subjects (*I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, *ye*, *they*, *summer*, *winter*, *the horses*, *the sun*, *the rain*, *I*, and *we*) with the predicates (*speaking*, *writing*, *singing*, *playing*, *burning*, *speaking*, *singing*, *playing*, *coming*, *departing*, *feeding*, *shining brightly*, *falling fast*

---

[1] As in *thin*.

this morning, *moving*, *speaking*). Consequently they are all verbs substantive. The verbs substantive, in English, in their different forms, are, —

1. *Be ; beest*,[1] *being, been ;* or *be, be-est, be-ing, bee-n.*

2. *Am ; art, is, are ;* or *a-m, a-rt, i-s, a-re.*

3. *Was ; wast, were, wert ;* or *w-as, w-as-t, w-ere, w-er-t.*

§ 205. Before we consider the nature of the Common Verbs, or Verbs properly so called, it is necessary to turn to § 94, and observe the words in the third column.

Now, if we take any of these words, we shall find that it expresses an *action.* Hence, *speaking, barking, growing, mouldering, cracking, crumbling, hunting, shooting, killing, living, dying*, are all words in which there is the notion of *doing* something, or of *action.* This is not the case with the words in the first two columns. In them there is no notion of *action.*

Now the words in the third column, and words like them (*growing, mouldering*, &c.), are adjectives of a peculiar sort. They are called Participles. A participle can constitute a predicate ; as, *I am* speaking, &c. In this respect they agree with the common adjective. But, besides this, they convey the notion of *actions ;* which adjectives do not.

§ 206. Refer to § 204. Take any one of the propositions contained in that section ; as, *I am speaking*, &c. Omit the copula, or verb substantive (*am*). The remainder is *I speaking*, which is nonsense.

Reject, however, from the word *speaking* (*speak-ing*)

---

[1] Obsolete. — *If thou beest he.* — MILTON.

the syllable *ing*, and so reduce the word *speak-ing* to *speak*. The remainder is *I speak*, words which constitute a proposition, and make good sense.

§ 207. The fact is, that the word *speak* constitutes at once both copula and predicate, and is equivalent to the words *am speaking* in the proposition *I am speaking*.

Also, the word *speak* combines the powers of the verb substantive (*am*) and of the participle (*speaking*).

Words that by themselves can form both a copula and a predicate at once are called Common Verbs, or Verbs properly so called, or, simply, Verbs. They can always be resolved into a verb substantive and a participle.

§ 208. Participles are, therefore, akin both to the verbs and the adjectives. In the formation of propositions they play the part of adjectives, but in respect to their meaning they are allied to the verbs ; inasmuch as they convey the notion of action.

Every participle presupposes a verb. And every verb can be reduced to the verb substantive and a participle.

§ 209. There are certain other nouns that denote action, and are the names of persons who perform some action, or of agents. These are related to the substantive and verb, just as the participle is related to the adjective and verb. They are called Verbals.

> *hunt-er* = *a man who hunts.*
> *eat-er*   = *a man who eats.*
> *drink-er* = *a man who drinks.*
> *sleep-er* = *a man who sleeps.*
> *feed-er* = *a man who feeds.*
> *grind-er* = *a man who grinds*, &c.

§ 210. The verb is by most grammarians considered the most important of the parts of speech. From this view it derives its name. The Latin word *verbum* means *word ;* and the verb has been held preëminently *the word* in language.

§ 211. The verbs in English must be considered in respect to (1.) Person, (2.) Number, (3.) Tense, (4.) Mood. Besides this, it must be remembered that they can take the form of Participles.

§ 212. *Person.* — In the words *thou speakest*, the pronoun *thou* is of the Second Person, and the verb *speak*, when taken along with it, has attached to it the syllable *est*. The syllable *est* is an ending or termination. It shows that the word is taken with a pronoun of the second person. It is called the Sign of the Second Person ; and the word *speakest* is said to be in the Second Person. The sign of the Third Person is *s ;* as, *he speak-s*.

§ 213. *Number.* — When we say, *he read-s*, we speak of an action (the action of *reading*) performed by one person, or object. In this case the verb is Singular. But when we say, *they read*, we speak of an action (the action of *reading*) performed by more than one person, or object. In this case the verb is Plural.

There is sometimes a distinction of form between verbs singular and verbs plural ; in which case there is said to be a sign of Number.

§ 214. *Tense.* — When we use the word *call*, we speak of a certain *action*, namely, the action of *calling*. When we speak of the action that is taking place at the very time when we are speaking, we say, *I call, thou call-est, he call-s, we call, ye call, they call.* But if we

speak of the action as having taken place at some other time which has passed by, we say *I call-ed, thou call-ed-st, he call-ed, we call-ed, ye call-ed, they call-ed.* Now the forms *call* and *call-ed* are different. The form *call* denotes Present, the form *call-ed* Past Time. The presence of the additional sound *d* is the Sign of Past Time; the absence of that sound is the Sign of Present Time. A word with the sign of either past, present, or any other (such as future) time, is said to be in a certain *Tense.* The word *call* is in the Present, the word *call-ed* in the Past *Tense.*

§ 215. *Mood.* — When we say, *John walks,* we state something as a fact. We say positively that the action of walking is going on.

When we say, *John ! walk !* we give orders for something to take place; viz. the action of walking. We do not say that the action of walking is positively taking place, or going to take place. We only express a wish, or give a command, that it should take place.

When we say, *if John walk fast, he will fatigue himself,* we use the word *walk* in a third sense. We do not say that the action of walking is taking place, has taken place, or will take place. Neither do we express a wish or a command that it may take place. We say, however, that *if* it do take place, something else will take place also; viz. that the person who causes it to take place (John) will fatigue himself (that is, the fatigue will take place). Now in this case there is the idea of conditions and contingencies. John's fatigue is contingent upon his walking fast; that is, it is the fast walking that John's fatigue

depends on. The fast walking is the condition of John's fatigue.

In the phrase *John begins to walk*, the word *walk* is in a different sense from any of the preceding.

We shall now find, on looking back, that the word *walk* has appeared in four different senses. It has, indeed, all along expressed the action *to walk ;* but it has conveyed the idea of it under four different aspects, or *manners.*

These different aspects, or manners, are called *Moods*, from the Latin word *modus = a manner.* In many languages the moods have particular signs, just like the tenses. In English the distinction between the moods is very slight.

§ 216. In the sentence, *John walks*, the word *walks* is in the Indicative Mood. It indicates the fact of John's walking.

In the command, *John ! walk !* the word *walk* is in the Imperative Mood. The word Imperative is derived from the Latin word *impero = I command.*

In the sentence, *if John walk fast, he will fatigue himself*, the word *walk* is in the Conjunctive Mood. In this case there is *conjoined* with the proposition in question another proposition. In the case quoted, *he will fatigue himself* is one proposition ; *John walks fast* is another. The word *if* connects the two, and this connection changes the mood of the word *walks*, which becomes *walk*. From this fact the mood is called Conjunctive ; from the Latin word *conjungo = I conjoin*, or *join together*.

In the sentence, *John begins to walk*, the verb *walk* is subordinate to the word *begins*. It merely states

what the action is that *John begins to perform* (viz. *the action of walking*). This it does and nothing more. It does not fix or *define* the manner of the action. It does not determine whether it really takes place, or will take place under certain conditions. All this is done by the other verb (*begins*). This mood defines nothing, and is therefore called the Infinitive Mood.

§ 217. We now inquire how far the different (1.) Persons, (2.) Numbers, (3.) Moods, and (4.) Tenses, are expressed by corresponding signs.

<center>PERSON.</center>

§ 218. *Sign of the First Person Singular.* — Found in one verb only. In the word *am* (*a-m*) the *m* is no part of the original word. It is the sign of the First Person Singular Present Indicative. Beyond this, no word in English has, in any mood, tense, or number, any form of termination for the First Person.

§ 219. *Sign of the Second Person Singular.* — The usual sign of the Second Person Singular is *est* or *edst ;* as, *thou call-est.* It occurs both in the present and past tenses ; *thou calledst, thou spakest.* Like the pronoun *thou*, it is rarely used except in formal discourse.

§ 220. *Sign of the Third Person Singular.* — The usual sign of the Third Person Singular is the sound of the syllable *eth*, or of the letters *s*, *z* (or *es*) ; as, *he call-eth*, or *he call-s*. The first of these two forms is only used in formal discourse. The Third Person is only found in the indicative mood, and in the present tense. We cannot say, *if he speaketh*, or *if he speaks ;* neither can we say, *he called-th*, or *he called-s*, *he spak-eth*, or *he spake-s*.

Whether the addition be the sound of *s* in *seal* (as *hit-s*), of *z* in *zeal* (as *call-z*), or of the syllable *ez* (as *hiss-ez*), depends upon the same circumstances as the use of the same sounds in the possessive case, and the nominative plural.

§ 221. Throughout the whole of the plural there are no signs of the persons; no changes of form : *we call, ye call, they call ; we called, ye called, they called.*

In respect to Person the following peculiarities deserve notice.

§ 222. *Forms sungest and sangest.* — In Anglo-Saxon the word *sing*, and a great number of words like it, took in the past tense a different vowel for the second person from the one found in the first and third ; e. g. *Ic sang* (*I sang*), *he sang* (*he sang*), were the forms for the first and third persons singular ; where the vowel was *a*. But the *second* person singular was þu *sunge* (*thou sungest*) ; where the vowel was *u*. In this way were conjugated (amongst others) the following verbs : *swim, begin, sing, spring, ring, sink, drink, shrink, run*. In all these words the second person singular of the past tense was formed in *u*, whilst the first and third persons took the vowel *a ;* e. g. þu *swumme,* þu *on-gunne,* þu *sunge,* þu *sprunge,* þu *runge,* þu *sunce,* þu *drunce,* þu *runne,* = *thou swummest, thou begunnest, thou sungest,* &c., &c. ; and, on the other hand, *Ic* (or *he*) *swam, Ic* (or *he*) *ongann, Ic* (or *he*) *sang, Ic* (or *he*) *sprang, Ic* (or *he*) *rang, Ic* (or *he*) *sank, Ic* (or *he*) *drank, Ic* (or *he*) *rann* = *I* (or *he*) *swam, I* (or *he*) *began,* &c., &c. There were no such forms in Anglo-Saxon as *Ic* (or *he*) *swumm,* or as þu *swamme.* Now this distinction of person is not adhered to in the

present English, since it is the author's opinion that the
writers and speakers who say *I* (or *he*) *sang*, say also
thou sangest ; whilst those who say *thou sungest*, say
also *I* (or *he*) *sung*.

§ 223. *Second Persons not ending in* st. — In five
words the sign of the second person singular is not *est*
(as in *read-est*), but *t ;* as *ar-t, was-t, wer-t, shal-t,
wil-t :* thou *ar-t*, thou *was-t*, thou *wer-t*, thou *shal-t*,
thou *wil-t*. There are no such words as *ar-est, was-
est, wer-est, shall-est ;* and the word *will-est*, when used
at all, is different in sense from *wil-t*.

Now, in the Mœso-Gothic and the Old Norse, the
second person singular of a certain class of *preterites*
ended in *t :* as *svór-t* (*swor-est*), *graip-t* (*gripedst*),
Mœso-Gothic ; *brann-t* (*burn-ed-st*), *gaf-t* (*gave-st*),
Old Norse.

Again, in the same languages, ten words, of which
skal (*shall*) is one, were never formed in respect to
their persons like *present*, but always like *preterite*
tenses.

Mœso-Gothic.

Singular.	Plural.
1. skal	skul-um
2. skal-t	skul-uþ
3. skal.	skul-un.

Old Norse.

Singular.	Plural.
1. skal	skul-um
2. skal-t	skul-uð
3. skal.	skul-u.

It is most probable that the *t* in *ar-t, was-t, wer-t,*

shal-t, *wil-t*, is the *t* of the second person singular pre-
terite in the Mœso-Gothic and the Old Norse.

§ 224. In the words *a-m*, *speak-est*, *speak-eth* (or
speak-s), the sounds of *m*, *est*, and *eth* (or *s*) respect-
ively denote a difference of person. They also de-
note a difference of number, since they are found only
in the singular. But this they do in a secondary way.
They are truly the signs of *persons*; the only real
sign expressive of a difference of number occurs in
the past tense of the indicative mood of the verb sub-
stantive.

Singular.	Plural.
I was.	We *were.*
Thou wast.	Ye *were.*
He was.	They *were.*

§ 225. *Sung* and *sang.* — By referring to § 222, we
shall see that in Anglo-Saxon the vowel in the second
person singular in the preterite of words like *sing*
(*sang*, *sung*) was different from that in the first (*ic
sang*, *þu sunge*). The same took place in respect to
the numbers; e. g.

Ic arn, *I ran.*	We urnon, *we run.*
Ic ongan, *I began.*	We ongunnon, *we begun.*
Ic span, *I span.*	We spunnon, *we spun.*
Ic sang, *I sang.*	We sungon, *we sung.*
Ic swang, *I swang.*	We swungon, *we swung.*
Ic dranc, *I drank.*	We druncon, *we drunk.*
Ic sanc, *I sank.*	We suncon, *we sunk.*
Ic swam, *I swam.*	We swummom, *we swum.*

Ic sprang, *I sprang.*   We sprungon, *we sprung.*
Ic rang, *I rang.*   We rungon, *we rung.*

There are no such forms in Anglo-Saxon as *ic* (or *he*) *swumm*, or as *we* (*ge* or *hi*) *swammon*. Now this distinction of person is not adhered to in the present English. It is the author's opinion that the writers and speakers who say, *I* (or *he*) *sang*, say also, *we* (*ye* or *they*) *sang ;* whilst those who say, *we* (*ye* or *they*) *swum*, say also, *I* (or *he*) *swum*.

The double forms *clave* and *clove*, *rode* and *rid*, *wrote* and *writ*, and many others, are to be accounted for in a similar way.

<center>MOODS.</center>

§ 226. The only instance in English of a verb in one mood being distinguished from a verb in another by any positive sign, occurs in the conjugation of the word *was.*

Indicative.		*Subjunctive.*	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
I *was.*	We were.	If I *were.*	If we were.
Thou *wast.*	Ye were.	If thou *wert.*	If ye were.
He *was.*	They were.	If he *were.*	If they were.

§ 227. In the sentence, *John walks*, as compared with the sentence, *if John walk he will be fatigued*, there is a difference between the word *walk-s* (indicative) and the word *walk* (conjunctive). The conjunctive *omits* the sign of the person (*s*). This, however, is only a negative sign, and consequently scarcely constitutes a true distinction in form between the two moods. In the

same manner we say, *thou walkest*, but, *if thou walk.*
It is only in the second and third persons singular of the
present tense that the conjunctive differs at all from the
indicative.

§ 228. The tenses in English are two : **1.** the Pres-
ent, as *I call*, *I speak ;* **2.** the Past, as *I called*, *I spoke.*
The past tense is also called the Preterite, from the
Latin word *præteritus = gone by* or *past.*

§ 229. *Participles.* — The participles in English are
two : **1.** the Present Participle Active, as *call-ing*, *speak-
ing ;* **2.** the Past Participle Passive, as *call-ed*, *spok-en.*

§ 230. The English verbs fall into two classes, ac-
cording to the forms of their past tense and their past
participles. Instead of Class, the grammarians often
say Conjugation ; so that the verbs may be said to fall
into two Conjugations.

THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

§ 231. The Conjugation of verbs that demands the
first notice is called the Strong Conjugation.

Verbs of the strong conjugation form their past (or
preterite) tense from the present, by simply changing
the vowel. Thus *sang* is formed from *sing* by chan-
ging *i* into *a ; fell* (the past tense) from *fall* (the present
tense), by changing the *a* into *e ;* and so on throughout :
speak, *spake* or *spoke ; steal*, *stole ; drink*, *drank ; draw*,
drew, &c.

§ 232. Verbs of the strong conjugation form their
past participle by the addition of *en*, generally accom-
panied by a change of vowel, as *speak*, *spok-en.*

§ 233. Sometimes the *en* in the present language is omitted; as *find, found*. In all these cases it must especially be remembered that this rejection of the *en* occurs only in the later stages of our language. In words like *found* the original participle was *funden*, and so on throughout. In many cases both forms occur: as *drink*, participle *drunken*, or *drunk*.

§ 234. The vowel of the participle is often the same as the vowel of the past tense, as *spoke, spoken ;* but not always, as *took, taken*. When the former is the case, and when, at the same time, the *en* (or *n*) is rejected, the past tense and the past participle have the same form ; as *I found, I have found*. In this case it *seems* as if the past tense was used *for* the participle. Now it is only in a few words, and in the most modern forms of our language, that this is really done.

Present.	Past Tense.	Participle.
hold	held	held
be-hold	be-held	be-held
strike	struck	struck
smite	smote	smote
ride	rode	rode.

Held. — The regular participle is *holden*. Consequently the form that would arise from the simple rejection of the *en* would be *hold*. Such, however, is not the case. *Held* is really a preterite form used as a participle. The same reasoning applies to the compound *be-hold*.

Struck. — The regular participle is *stricken*. Nevertheless, there is no such shortened form as *strick*.

Smote. — The regular participle is *smitten*. This is

occasionally used. It ought always to be so. The shortened form *smit* (*I have smit*) is also of occasional occurrence. When *smote*, however, occurs, it occurs through a confusion of the preterite and participial forms. A stanza from Lord Byron's " Hebrew Melodies " illustrates the whole of the present section : —

> "And the widows of Ashur are loud in their wail;
> And the idols are *broke* in the temple of Baal;
> And the might of the Gentile, *unsmote* by the sword,
> Has melted like snow in the glance of the Lord."

The words *broke* and *smote*, both exceptionable, are exceptionable in different degrees and for different reasons. *Broke* is not necessarily a preterite form used participially. It may be (and probably it is) the participial form abbreviated (*brok-en*, *broke*). *Smote*, however, cannot have arisen out of any abbreviation of a participial form. Such a form would be *smit*.

The same reasoning applies to the participles of *ride*, *stride*, and (perhaps) *write*. The right forms are *ridden*, *stridden*, *written ;* the next best, *rid*, *strid*, *writ ;* the worst, *rode*, *strode*, *wrote*. Few writers would venture to say, *I have wrote a letter*.

These remarks show that, naturally and properly, the participle, even when it has the same form as the preterite (*found*), is formed independently.

§ 235. The past participles are exhibited in the fourth and fifth columns of the ensuing lists. The fourth column contains the full participles in *en* (many of which are more or less obsolete), the fifth, those where the *n* is omitted. The asterisk (*) denotes that the word is obsolete. The note of interrogation (?) denotes that it is a matter of doubt whether the word

to which it is attached be sufficiently established by usage.

§ 236. Several strong verbs have two forms of the past tense; as *spake*, *spoke*; *sang*, *sung*. *Some* of these double forms are capable of explanation. See §§ 222 and 225. All cannot be thus accounted for; for instance, the two forms *spake* and *spoke*.

§ 237. The past tenses of the strong verbs are exhibited in the second and third columns of the ensuing lists; the additional column being appropriated to those that have two forms. The asterisk (*) denotes that the word to which it is attached is obsolete. The letter (*p*) indicates that the word to which it is attached may be explained by §§ 222 and 225.

This letter stands for *plural*, and it is supposed that the forms by the side of which it appears are derived from plural forms as exhibited in § 225, or from (what is the same thing) those of the second person singular as exhibited in § 222.

The Strong Verbs may be conveniently divided into classes as follows : [1] —

§ 238. *First Class.*

The sound of *o* is changed into that of *ĕ* in the past tense.

PRESENT.	PAST TENSE. (First form.)	PAST TENSE. (Second form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Full form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Shortened form.)
fall	fell	——	fallen	——
hold	held	——	holden	——

[1] For a fuller explanation of the principles of this division, see Chap. XXIII. of *English Language*. Although the arrangement here adopted is essentially Latham's, yet it is proper to state that changes have been made in a few of the forms. The order of the seventh and eighth classes has been reversed.

§ 239. *Second Class.*

The preterite ends in a *w*, which has grown out of an Anglo-Saxon *g*.

PRESENT.	PAST TENSE. (First form.)	PAST TENSE. (Second form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Full form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Shortened form.)
draw	drew	——	drawn	——
slay	slew	——	slain	——
fly	flew	——	flown	——
see	saw	——	seen	——

§ 240. *Third Class.*

O before *w* in the present becomes *e* before *w* in the preterite.

blow	blew	——	blown	——
crow	crew	——	*crown	——
grow	grew	——	grown	——
know	knew	——	known	——
throw	threw	——	thrown	——

§ 241. *Fourth Class.*

Short *e* in the present remains unchanged in the preterite.

let	let	——	——	let.

§ 242. *Fifth Class.*

Sound of long *e* remains unchanged.

beat	beat	——	beaten	beat.

§ 243. *Sixth Class.*

come	came	——	——	come
become [1]	became	——	——	become.

---

[1] The word *become* = *fit* or *suit* is a different word from *become* the derivative of *come*. *Become* = *fit*, *suit*, is of the same origin with the German *bequem* = *fitting* or *convenient*. It is properly a weak word; although the practice of language has sanctioned the confusion. We cannot, although we ought to, say *becomed.*

§ 244. *Seventh Class.*

In this class the sounds of the *ee* in *feet* and of the *a* in *fate* (spelt *ea*) is changed into *a*. Several words of this class have secondary forms. The first form preserves the Anglo-Saxon vowel.

PRESENT.	PAST TENSE. (First form.)	PAST TENSE. (Second form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Full form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Shortened form.)
speak	spake	spoke	spoken	——
wreak	*wrake	*wroke	*wroken	——
stave	stove	——	——	stove
break	brake	broke	broken	?broke
cleave (*split*)	*clave	clove *p.*	cloven	——
cleave (*stick*)	clave	——	——	——
steal	*stale	stole	stolen	——
eat	ate	——	eaten	eat
seethe	——[1]	*sod *p.*	sodden	*sod
tread	*trad	trod	trodden	trod
bear	bare	bore	borne	——
tear	*tare	tore	torn	——
swear	sware	swore	sworn	——
wear	*ware	wore	worn	——
bid	bade	——	bidden	bid
sit	sat	——	sitten	——
give	gave	——	given	——
lie	lay	——	lain	——
get	*gat	got	gotten	got
forget	——	forgot	forgotten	forgot.

All the words with secondary forms will appear again in the eighth class.

§ 245. *Eighth Class.*

In this class we have the sounds of the *ee* in *feet*, and of the *a* in *fate* (spelt *ea* or *a*), changed into *o* or *oo*. Several words in this class have already appeared in the seventh class.

---

[1] seáth (Anglo-Saxon).

PRESENT.	PAST TENSE. (First form.)	PAST TENSE. (Second form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Full form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Shortened form.)
heave	hove	——	*hoven	——
cleave (*split*)	clove *p.*	*clave	cloven	——
weave	wove	——	woven	——
freeze	froze	——	frozen	——
steal	stole	*stale	stolen	——
speak	spoke	spake	spoken	?spoke
swear	swore	sware	sworn	——
bear	bore	bare	borne	——
tear	tore	*tare	torn	——
wear	wore	*ware	worn	——
shear	*shore	——	shorn	——
break	broke	brake	broken	?broke
shake	shook	——	shaken	——
take	took	——	taken	——
forsake	forsook	——	forsaken	——
stand	stood	——	stood	——
——	quoth	——	——	——
get	got	*gat	gotten	got
forget	forgot	——	forgotten	forgot.

§ 246. *Ninth Class.*

A, as in *fate*, is changed either into the *o* in *note*, or the *oo* in *book*.

awake	awoke	——	——	——
lade	*lode	——	laden	——
grave	*grove	——	graven	——
take	took	——	taken	——
shake	shook	——	shaken	——
forsake	forsook	——	forsaken	——
shape	*shope	——	shapen	——

§ 247. *Tenth Class.*

strike	{ *strake *strook struck	——	stricken	——

§ 248. *Eleventh Class*

In this class we find the secondary forms accounted for by the difference of form between the singular and plural number. The change is from the *i* in *bite* to the *o* in *note* and the *i* in *pit*. Sometimes it is from the *i* in *bit* to the *a* in *bat*.

PRESENT.	PAST TENSE. (First form.)	PAST TENSE. (Second form)	PARTICIPLE. (Full form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Shortened form)
rise	rose	*ris *p*.	risen	——
abide	abode	——	*abidden	——
shine	shone	——	shone	——
smite	smote	smit *p*	smitten	smit
ride	rode	*rid *p*.	ridden	rid
stride	strode	strid	stridden	strid
slide	*slode	slid *p*.	slidden	slid
glide	*glode	——	*glidden	*glid
chide	*chode	chid *p*.	chidden	chid
drive	¹drove	*driv *p*.	driven	——
thrive	throve	*thriv	thriven	——
shrive	shrove	——	shriven	——
strive	strove	——	striven	——
write	wrote	writ *p*.	written	writ
climb	*clomb	——	——	——
slit	*slat	slit *p*.	*slitten	slit
spit	spat	——	spitten	spit
bite	*bat	bit *p*.	bitten	bit
fight	fought	——	——	fought.

§ 249. *Twelfth Class.*

In this class *i* is generally short ; originally it was always so. In the singular form it becomes *ă*, in the plural *ŭ*.

swim	swam	swum *p*.	——	swum
begin	began	begun *p*.	——	begun

---

¹ Formerly *drave*.

PRESENT.	PAST TENSE. (First form.)	PAST TENSE. (Second form)	PARTICIPLE. (Full form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Shortened form.)
spin	*span	spun *p*.	——	spun
win	*wan	[1]won *p*.	——	[1]won
sing	sang	sung *p*.	*sungen	sung
swing	*swang	swung *p*.	——	swung
spring	sprang	sprung *p*.	——	sprung
sting	*stang	stung *p*.	——	stung
ring	rang	rung *p*.	——	rung
wring	*wrang	wrung *p*.	——	wrung
fling	flang	flung	——	flung
cling	——	clung *p*.	——	clung
*hing	hang	hung	——	hung
string	*strang	strung	——	strung
sling	——	slung *p*.	——	slung
sink	sank	sunk *p*.	sunken	sunk
drink	drank	drunk *p*.	drunken	drunk
shrink	shrank	shrunk *p*.	shrunken	shrunk
stink	*stank	stunk *p*.	——	stunk
swink	*swank	*swunk *p*.	*swunken	——
slink	——	slunk *p*.	——	slunk
swell	*swoll	——	swollen	——
melt	*molt	——	molten	——
help	*holp	——	*holpen	——
delve	*dolve	——	*dolven	——
dig	——	dug	——	dug
stick	*stack	stuck	——	stuck
run	ran	run	——	run
burst	——	burst	*bursten	burst
bind	*band	bound	*bounden	bound
find	*fand	found	——	found
grind	——	ground	——	ground
wind	——	wound	——	wound

§ 250. *Thirteenth Class.*

choose	chose	——	chosen	——

[1] Sounded *wun*.

THE WEAK CONJUGATION.

§ 251. The second conjugation of English verbs is called the Weak Conjugation.

Verbs of the weak conjugation form their past tense from the present by the addition of the *sound* of *d*, *t*, or *ed*; as *fill*, *filled* (pronounced *filld*), *dip*, *dipped* (pronounced *dipt*), *instruct*, *instructed*.

§ 252. In the present English the past participle and past tense have generally the same form. *I filled* (past tense), *I have filled* (past participle); *I dipped* (past tense), *I have dipped* (past participle); *I instructed* (past tense), *I have instructed* (past participle).

§ 253. Verbs of the weak conjugation are divided into three classes : —

1st. Verbs forming their preterites by the simple addition of the sound of *d*, *t*, or *ed*; as *move*, *moved*; *toss*, *tossed* (pronounced *tost*); *instruct*, *instructed*.

2d. Verbs forming their preterites by the addition of the sound of *d* or *t*, and by *shortening* the vowel of the present; as *flēē*, *flĕd*; *kēēp*, *kĕpt*. No word of this division forms its preterite by the addition of the syllable *ed*.

3d. Verbs forming their preterites by the addition of the sound of *d* or *t*, and by *changing* the vowel; as, *tell*, *tol-d*; *catch*, *caught*.

§ 254. Whether the addition be *d* or *t* depends upon the flatness or sharpness of the preceding letter.

1. After *b*, *v*, *th* (as in *clothe*), *g*, or *z*, the addition is *d*. This is a matter of *necessity*. We say, *stabd*, *movd*, *clothd*, *braggd*, *whizzd*, because *stabt*, *movt*, *clotht*, *braggt*, *whizzt*, are unpronounceable.

2. After *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *w*, *y*, or a vowel, the addition is also *d*. This is the *habit* of the English language. *Filt*, *slurt*, *strayt*, &c., are as pronounceable as *filld*, *slurrd*, *strayd*, &c. It is the habit, however, of the English language to prefer the latter forms.

§ 255. FIRST CLASS. — In the past tenses of this class the sound of *d*, *t*, or *ed* is simply added to the present form. To this class belong the greater part of the weak verbs, and all verbs of foreign origin.

serve	served	dip	dipped (*dipt*)
cry	cried	slip	slipped (*slipt*)
betray	betrayed	step	stepped (*stept*)
expel	expelled	look	looked (*lookt*)
accuse	accused	pluck	plucked (*pluckt*)
instruct	instructed	toss	tossed (*tost*)
invite	invited	push	pushed (*pusht*)
waste	wasted	confess confessed(*confest*).	

§ 256. Whenever the present ends in *t* or *d*, it is impossible to form the past tense by the addition of a second *t* or *d*, because (§ 47) two identical letters cannot come together in the same syllable.

The difficulty is met, in the present case, by inserting a vowel between the *t* or *d* of the present, and the *t* or *d* which is the sign of the past tense; as *instruct*, *instruct-e-d*, not *instruct't*.

§ 257. It is to be remarked that only words ending in *t* or *d*, and not all of those, form their past tense by the addition of the sound of the syllable *ed*. In words like *moved* (*moovd*) and *killed* (*killd*) the *e* is present to the eye only. The *d* comes in contact with the final letter of the original word, and the number of syllables remains the same as it was before.

Most of the verbs that form the past tense by the addition of the sound of the syllable *ed* are of French or Latin extraction.

§ 258. SECOND CLASS. — To form the past tense of the second class of weak verbs, the sound of *d* or *t* is added to the present, and the vowel of the present (if long) is made short.

feel	felt	flee	fled
deal	dealt	dream	dreămt
kneel	knelt	lean	leănt
creep	crept	mean	meănt
keep	kept	bereave	bereft
sleep	slept	cleave	cleft
sweep	swept	leave	left
weep	wept	hear	heard
lose	lost	leap	leaped (*pron.* lĕpt)
shoe	shod	eat	eat (*pron.* ĕt).

NOTE 1. Whenever the present ends in the *sound* of *d* or *t*, a second *d* or *t* cannot be added, for the reason given above. In this case the past tense is formed simply by shortening the vowel of the present.

Remark. — Such verbs as *chide*, *ride*, *slide*, *stride*, *bite*, *write*, *smite*, would appear to come under this rule, since they have such forms for the past tense as *chid*, *rid*, *slid*, &c. But these are all strong verbs, with two forms for the past tense. See §§ 222, 225.

meet	met	breed	bred
betide	betid	feed	fed
hide	hid	lead	led
light	lit	read	read (*pron.* rĕd)
shoot	shot	speed	sped.
bleed	bled		

NOTE 2. The present of some verbs ending in *d* has already a *short* vowel. As the termination *d* does not allow another *d* or *t* to be *added*, the past tense is formed in this case simply by changing the sound of *d* into that of *t*.

bend	bent	wend	went
blend	blent	spend	spent
lend	lent	build	built
rend	rent	gild	gilt
send	sent	gird	girt.

NOTE 3. The present tense of some verbs both has a short vowel and already ends in the sound of *t*. In this case, the past tense has the same form as the present.

cast	cast	set	set
cost	cost	shut	shut
cut	cut	spit	spit
hit	hit	split	split
hurt	hurt	sweat	swet
knit	knit	thrust	thrust
put	put	wet	wet
quit	quit	wont	wont.

Remark. — *Let*, *burst*, and *slit* are strong verbs, and do not come under the above rule. In like manner *beat*, which has the same form for the present and the preterite, is a strong verb. Reference to the Anglo-Saxon will generally determine the conjugation in doubtful cases.

NOTE 4. The following verbs ending in *d*, and having a short vowel in the present, do not change the *d* into *t* in the past tense, but have the same form for both tenses.

shed	shed	spread	spread
shred	shred	rid	rid.
bid	bid		

§ 259. 1. The following preterites of the second class are remarkable; viz. burnt, learned (pronounced *lernt*), spoilt, dealt, dreamed (pronounced *drĕmt*), felt, dwelt, knelt, meant, spelled (pronounced *spelt*), spilled (pronounced *spilt*). In all these we find the sound *t*, when, according to § 254. 2, we should expect that of *d*.

2. The following are remarkable for another reason: *left, cleft, bereft.* They end in the sound of *t*, which is sharp. But according to § 254. 1, the addition after the sound *v* is *d*. Hence we should expect *leaved, cleaved, bereaved*, and, indeed, the last form occurs. To form *left, cleft, bereft*, the *v* in the present is sharpened into *f*, and is then naturally followed by the sharp *t*.

§ 260. THIRD CLASS. — In the third class of weak verbs the past tense is formed from the present by adding *d* or *t*, and by *changing* the vowel.

tell	told	sell	sold
will	would	shall	should.

§ 261. Before we consider the other words of this class, it is necessary to be familiar with the following facts respecting the affinities of the sounds of *g* in *gun* and of *k* in *kin ;* inasmuch as, where any modification of these sounds occurs in verbs of the present division, the consonant is changed as well as the vowel.

1. The sound of the *k* in *kin* is allied to the sound of the *ch* (*tsh*) in *chest ;* that is, the sound of *k* has a tendency to change into that of *tsh*. In the words *teach*,

*c*atch, *beseec*h, the last sound is that of *tsh ;* as *teatsh,*
catsh, beseetsh. Now this sound originated in the sound
of *k.* It can be shown from the comparison of lan-
guages, that sounds like *ka* become, (1.) *kya,* (2.) *ksha,*
(3.) *tsha.* Hence the words *teach, catch,* and *beseech*
are liable to the same changes as *teak, cak, beseek,* would
be liable to.

2. The sounds of *k* (as in *kin*) and *g* (as in *gun*) are
allied to each other. They are also allied to the same
sounds, so that to all the changes whereto the sound of
k is liable, the sound of *g* is liable also.

3. The sounds of *k* and *g,* as in *brick* and *brig,* are
allied to the sound of *ng,* as in *bring.*

4. The sounds of *k, g,* and *ng,* allied to each other,
are also allied to the sounds of *h* (in *hot*) and of *y* (in
yet). Very often the *h* is sounded strongly and in the
throat; in which case it is still more akin to the sound
of *g* (as in *gun*).

5. The sounds of *y* (in *yet*) and *h* (in *hot*) have a
great tendency to be softened in pronunciation, and af-
terwards to be omitted altogether.

Putting these facts together, we can understand how
syllables that once contained the sounds of *k, g, ng,*
ngk, tsh, y, and *h* may gradually miss those sounds,
having first changed them, and afterwards lose them
altogether.

§ 262. With these preliminaries, we can go through
the details of the third division of weak verbs.

1. *Seek,* present; *sough-t,* preterite. The forms in
Anglo-Saxon are *séce, sóh-te.* The sound of the al-
tered *k* preserved in the spelling *gh.*

2. *Teach,* present; *taugh-t,* preterite. The forms in

Anglo-Saxon are *tæce*, *tæh-te*. The sound of the altered *k* preserved in the spelling *gh*.

3. *Reach.* — The present preterite is *reached* (*reat-sht*), belonging to the first division of weak verbs. There is, however, the older preterite *raugh-t*, formed in the same way as *taugh-t*. Anglo-Saxon *ræce*, *ræh-te*.

4. *Beseech*, present; *besough-t*, preterite. Formed on the same principle as *sough-t*.

5. *Catch*, present; *caugh-t*, preterite. The sound of the altered *k* is still represented in the spelling *gh*.

6. *Bring*, present; *brough-t*, preterite. The altered sound of *ng* is represented in the spelling *gh*. The Anglo-Saxon forms were *bringe*, *brôh-te*.

7. *Think*, present; *though-t*, preterite. The altered sound of the *ngk* is exhibited in the spelling *gh*. The Anglo-Saxon forms were þence, þôh-te.

Observe. — The words *think* and *thought*, in the sentences *I think* and *I thought*, are of different origin from the words *think* and *thought* in *methinks* and *methought*. The Anglo-Saxon form of these latter words is þincð and þúhte. The word þincan in Anglo-Saxon meant, not *to think*, but *to seem*.

8. *Work*, present; *work-ed*, and *wrough-t*, preterite. The word *wrough-t* is formed on the same principle as *sough-t*, except that, over and above the usual change, there is a transposition of the sound of the *r*. The Anglo-Saxon forms were *wyrce*, *worh-te*.

9. *Owe*,[1] present; *ough-t*, preterite. The forms in

---

[1] As late as the time of Elizabeth we find *owe* used for *own*. The present form *own* seems to have arisen from the plural *ágon*. *Ought*

Anglo-Saxon, *áge*, *áhte*. In this case the original *g* is represented in the spelling only, and that by *w* in the present, and *gh* in the preterite tense. *Owe* is pronounced *o*, and *ough-t* is pronounced *aut*. This change from the sound of *g* to that of *w*, although not noticed above, is found in many words; as, *sorrow*, *sorwe*, Old English; *sorge*, Danish; *sorg*, *sorh*, Anglo-Saxon.

10. *Buy*, present; *bough-t*, preterite. The original *g* is found in Anglo-Saxon, *bycge*, *bóh-te*.

§ 263. *Peculiar Forms.* — *Made*, *had*. — In these words there is nothing remarkable but the dropping of a consonant. The ancient forms were *macode*, and *hæfde* respectively. The *c* (*k*) and *f* have been ejected.

Durst, *must*. — These words have the same form for all persons, and for both numbers and tenses. They have not yet been satisfactorily explained.

Quoth. — The verb *quoth* is truly defective. It is hardly used, except in the third person singular of the preterite, and never used at all in the second person. It has the further peculiarity of preceding its pronoun. Instead of saying, *he quoth*, we say, *quoth he*. In Anglo-Saxon it was not defective. But although such forms as *I queath*, *thou queathest*, &c., do not occur in the simple verb, yet they are found in the compound, *I bequeath*, *thou bequeathest*, &c.

Wist. — The preterite of *wis*, I know. The infinitive of this verb is *to wit*, Anglo-Saxon *witan*. Besides these forms we have *wot*, corresponding to the Anglo-

---

is the preterite of the Anglo-Saxon *áge*, *áh*; *owed*, of the English *owe*. The word *own*, in the expression *own to a thing*, has an entirely different origin from *own* in *I own a thing*. It comes from the Anglo-Saxon *an* (plural, *unnon*) = *I give*, or *grant*.

Saxon *wát*, know. Although this last word has the sig-
nification of the present tense, it is in form a strong
preterite.

Worth. — In the following lines of Scott, the word
worth = *is*, and is a fragment of the regular Anglo-
Saxon verb *weorðan* = *to be*, or *to become ;* German,
werden.

> " Woe *worth* the chase, woe *worth* the day,
> That cost thy life, my gallant gray."
>
> *Lady of the Lake.*

Do. — In the phrase, *this will do,* = *this will answer
the purpose*, the word *do* is wholly different from the
word meaning *to act.* The inflection of the two words
is different in Anglo-Saxon ; the infinitives are *dugan*
and *dón* respectively. *Did*, the preterite of *do*, to act,
is improperly used, by imitation, as the preterite of *do*
= *dugan.*

Do, to act, has a participle of the strong form, *done ;*
it is not yet satisfactorily made out whether the preterite
did is strong or weak.

Could. — This word is not formed from a pres-
ent in *l*, as it would seem from its resemblance to
should and *would* (§ 260). It is the preterite of *can*,
where no sound of *l* exists. As the *l* is not pronounced,
this form is an irregularity, not of language, but of
orthography.

§ 264. 1. Some verbs have two forms for the past
tense, one in *d*, the other in *t ;* as,

Present.	Preterite.	
burn	burned,	burnt
deal	dealed,	dealt
dream	dreamed,	dreamt

Present.	Preterite.
dwell	dwelled, dwelt
learn	learned, learnt
pen	penned, pent
smell	smelled, smelt
spell	spelled, spelt
spill	spilled, spilt
spoil	spoiled, spoilt.

The forms in *t* are perhaps preferable to those in *d*, and indeed the latter are generally pronounced as if spelt with a *t*. See § 259. 1.

2. Some verbs have two forms for the past tense, one in *ed*, the other in *t;* as,

Present.	Preterite.
bend	bended, bent
blend	blended, blent
wend	wended, went
build	builded, built
gild	gilded, gilt
gird	girded, girt
knit	knitted, knit
light	lighted, lit
quit	quitted, quit
slit	slitted, slit
split	splitted, split
sweat	sweated, swet
wet	wetted, wet
bereave	bereaved, bereft.

So, also, *betide, betided* or *betid.* The forms in *t* are preferable to those in *ed.*

3. Some verbs have two forms for the past tense;

9

one strong, according to § 231, the other weak, according to § 251 ; as,

	Strong.	Weak.
awake	awoke	awaked
cleave (*stick*)	clave	cleaved
cleave (*split*)	clove	cleft
climb	*clomb	climbed
crow	crew	crowed
delve	*dolve	delved
dig	dug	digged
glide	*glode	glided
grave	*grove	graved
hang	hung	hanged
heave	hove	heaved
help	*holp	helped
lade	*lode	laded
melt	*molt	melted
seethe	*sod	seethed
shape	*shope	shaped
shear	*shore	sheared
shine	shone	shined
shrive	shrove	shrived
slit	slit	slitted
stave	stove	staved
swell	*swoll	swelled
thrive	throve	thrived
wreak	*wroke	wreaked.

§ 265. Words like *sang* are called strong, because they are formed independently of any *addition*. Words like *filled* are called weak, because they require the *addition* of the sound of *d*.

The number of words like *climb* and *help*, that have both a *strong* and a *weak* form for their preterite, can be increased by looking either to the older forms of our language or to the provincial dialects, wherein these older forms are preserved.[1] It is thus that we discover such forms as *shope* for *shaped*, *dolve* for *delved*, &c.

Sometimes, in the present English, the preterite is weak, whilst the participle is strong; as, *show, showed, shown; mow, mowed, mown.*

This shows that strong verbs have a tendency to become weak as the language grows modern. Sometimes one of the forms alone (*preterite* or *participle*) changes (*mow*, mowed, *mown*). Sometimes both change, as *snow, snowed, snowed* (*it snowed, it has snowed*). In the old language the forms were *snow, snew, snown.*

Thus strong verbs become weak. On the other hand, there is, perhaps, no instance of a weak verb becoming strong. No word that once formed a preterite by the addition of *d, t,* or *ed,* now forms it by changing the vowel.

Neither would any new verb introduced into the language form its preterite according to the strong conjugation. It would form it by the addition of *d, t,* or *ed.*

Hence the *strong* process is an obsolete process. The current process is the one which gives the *weak* form. See § **133.**

---

[1] See § 385 of the 3d ed. of the *English Language.*

PAST PARTICIPLE.

§ 266. As a general rule, we find the participle in *en* whenever the preterite is strong; indeed, the participle in *en* may be called the participle of the strong conjugation. But in *mow, mowed, mown; sow, sowed, sown*, and several other words, we find the participle strong and the preterite weak.

In all words in which the vowel of the plural anciently differed from that of the singular (§ 225) the participle takes the plural form; as, *drank, drunk, drunken; write, wrote, written.*

In all words with a double form, as *spake, spoke, clave, clove*, the participle follows the form in *o*; as, *spoken, cloven.*

§ 267. In the older writers, and in works written, like Thomson's Castle of Indolence, in imitation of them, we find prefixed to the past participle the letter *y*, as y*clept* = *called;* y*clad* = *clothed.* This *y* grew out of an older form *ge*, the precise power of which is on the whole not satisfactorily determined.

§ 268. *Forlorn.* — This is a participle formed from the verb *lose*, the *s* being changed into *r*. The same change takes place in the words *rear* and *raise*. In the Anglo-Saxon the change from *s* to *r* was less limited.

ceóse,	*I choose;*	curon,	*we chose;*
ceás,	*I chose.*	gecoren,	*chosen.*
forleóse,	*I lose;*	forluron,	*we lost;*
forleás,	*I lost.*	forloren,	*lost.*
hreóse,	*I rush;*	hruron,	*we rushed;*
hreás,	*I rushed.*	gehroren,	*rushed.*

In Milton we find :

> " The piercing air
> Burns *frore*, and cold performs the effect of fire."
>
> *Paradise Lost.*

The word *frore* is from the Anglo-Saxon *gefroren* =
frozen.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

§ 269. The present participle is formed from the
present tense of verbs, by adding *ing.* A mute vowel
at the end of the verb is omitted in the participle.

§ 270. The present participle is used in many lan-
guages as a substantive. But it is generally stated that
the use of this participle as a substantive is more fre-
quent in English than elsewhere, and that it is used in
several cases and in both numbers ; e. g.

> *Rising* early is healthy.
> This is the advantage of *rising* early.
> The *risings* in the North, &c.

According to some philologists, the *ing* in words like
rising is not the *ing* of the present participle. It is
rather the *ing* in words like *cleansing*, which has orig-
inated in the Anglo-Saxon substantival termination *ung*
(*clænsung*).

Now, whatever may be the theory of the origin of
the termination *ing* in old phrases like *rising early is
healthy*, it cannot apply to expressions of recent intro-
duction, such as *affirming is not proving.* Here the
direct origin in *ung* is out of the question.

The view, then, that remains to be taken of the forms
in question is this : —

1. That the older forms in *ing* are substantival in origin, and are derived from Anglo-Saxon forms in *ung*.

2. That the later ones are participial, and have been formed by imitation, on a false analogy.

ADVERBS.

§ 271. The reader is referred to §§ 96, 97, 98, 99, and more especially to § 102. Besides this, he is recommended to make himself again familiar with the structure of propositions. (See § 88, &c.)

Take three words and form a proposition; as, *summer is pleasant*. Prefix to the word *summer* any word from amongst the following: *cheerfully, warmly, brightly, mildly*. Ask what sort of sense is made by the combination. The answer will be that, whether we say, *cheerfully summer is pleasant*, or *summer cheerfully is pleasant*, we can only get a meaning by taking the word *cheerfully* along with the word *pleasant;* in other words, that, although we may talk of *cheerful summer*, we cannot talk of *cheerfully summer*. Now, what applies to *summer* applies to a vast number of other words.

1. In the first place, they cannot form by themselves the subjects of propositions; since we cannot say, *cheerfully is pleasant*, or *cheerfully is summer*.

2. Neither can they form by themselves the predicates of propositions; since we cannot say, *summer is cheerfully*.

3. Nor yet can they form the copulas of propositions; since we cannot say, *summer cheerfully pleasant*.

4. Nor yet can they form the copula and predicate at once, as is done by the words quoted in § 99; we

cannot say, *summer cheerfully*, in the way we say, *summer cheers*.

Speaking generally, they cannot constitute *by themselves* any of the parts of a proposition.

Although they cannot do this, they can, however, combine with certain words which *can* constitute some of the parts of a proposition, and so form subordinate parts of subjects and predicates.

The class of words with which words like *cheerfully* combine are the adjectives (§§ 94, 106). We can say, *summer is* cheerfully *pleasant*, *summer is* ardently *hot*, *man is* certainly *mortal*, *John is* tolerably *good*, *James is* exceedingly *bad*, *this is* enormously *big*, *that is* contemptibly *little*, &c.

They also combine with participles (see §§ 205, 206, 207, 208, and also the words in the third column of the list under § 94). *He is hunting* eagerly, *we are fishing* earnestly, *they are shooting* continually, *the sun is shining* brightly, *the wife is weeping* immoderately, &c.

By referring to §§ 96, 97, 98, we shall see that in every verb there is contained either an adjective or a participle. Now, words like *cheerfully* can combine with verbs. This they do on the strength of the adjective or participle involved in the verb : *John eats* heartily, *James drinks* deeply, *he speaks* loudly, *she breathes* difficultly, *he lives* piously, *he died* calmly, *he fears* exceedingly, &c.

As it is generally with the verb that words like *cheerfully* are combined, they are called *Adverbs*.

An adverb is a word that enters into a proposition only when combined with an adjective, a participle, or a verb ; as,

> *Man is* certainly *mortal.*
> *John is* certainly *riding.*
> *John* certainly *rides.*

§ 272. The following words, along with many others, are adverbs : —

once	never	badly
twice	ever	well
thrice	yet	much
now	here	truly
then	there	brightly, &c.

§ 273. Words, originally nouns, are capable of being used in an adverbial sense ; as, *seldom, unawares,* &c.

Combinations of words are capable of being used in an adverbial sense ; as, *to-day, yester-day, now-a-days, not-at-all,* &c.

Adjectives are, above all other parts of speech, used in an adverbial sense, and that not only in English, but in most other languages ; as, *well, better, ill, worse,* and all the words ending in *ly* (*bright-ly, brave-ly*).

In expressions like *the sun shines bright,* the word *bright,* an adjective, is equivalent in meaning to the adverb *brightly.* In English there is with adjectives no distinction of gender ; if there were, *bright* and words like it (used adverbially) would be neuters.

§ 274. Adverbs are susceptible of the degrees of comparison. This takes place in three manners : —

1. By adding *er* or *est* to the adverb ; as, *bright-ly, bright-li-er, bright-li-est ; tight-ly, tight-li-er, tight-li-est.*

2. By taking the comparative or superlative form of an adjective and using it adverbially ; as, *the sun shines*

brighter to-day than it did yesterday, and probably it will shine brightest to-morrow.

3. By prefixing the word *more;* as, *the sun shines more brightly than it did yesterday, and will probably shine most brightly to-morrow.*

Of these three methods of denoting the degrees of comparison of adverbs, the last is most used by the best authorities.

COMPOSITION.

Composition is the joining together, *in language,* of two *different words,* and *treating the combination as a single term.*

§ 275. The word *day-light* is a compound word. If we take away from it the word *day,* the word *light* still remains a whole word. Or if we take away from it the word *light,* the word *day* still remains a whole word. Hence, in the compound word *day-light* we have two whole words put together. Composition is the putting together of two whole words so as to form one.

§ 276. By attending to the following sections, we shall see in what way the different parts of speech are capable of being put together by composition.

Substantives preceded by Substantives. — A large and important class. *Day-star, morning-star, evening-star, land-slip, watch-house, light-house, rose-tree, oak-tree, fir-tree, harvest-time, goose-grass, sea-man, collar-bone, shoulder-blade, ground-nut, earth-nut, hazel-nut, fire-wood, sun-light, moon-light, star-light, torch-light,* &c. In each of these compounds it is the second word which is qualified or defined by the first, and not the first which is qualified or defined by the second.

Substantives preceded by Adjectives. — (1.) Proper Names : *Good-man, New-man, North-humberland, South-hampton.* (2.) Common Names : *Blind-worm, free-man, free-thinker, half-penny, grey-beard, green-sward, white-thorn, black-thorn, mid-day, mid-summer, quick-silver, holy-day,* &c.

Substantives preceded by Verbs. — *Turn-spit, spit-fire, dare-devil, whet-stone, kill-cow, sing-song, turn-coat,* &c.

Substantives preceded by the Participle Present. — *Turning-lathe, sawing-mill.*

Adjectives preceded by Substantives. — *Sin-ful, thank-ful,* and other words ending in *ful. Blood-red, eye-bright, coal-black, snow-white, nut-brown, heart-whole, ice-cold, foot-sore,* &c.

Adjectives preceded by Adjectives. — *All-wise, two-fold, many-fold,* &c.

Adjectives preceded by Verbs. — *Stand-still, live-long.* Very rare.

Verbs preceded by Substantives. — *God-send.* Rare, and doubtful.

Verbs preceded by Adjectives. — *Little-heed, rough-hew.* Rare and doubtful.

Verbs preceded by Verbs. — *Hear-say.* Rare.

Present Participles preceded by Adjectives. — *All-seeing, all-ruling, soft-flowing, fast-sailing, merry-making.*

Past Participles of the Strong Form preceded by an Adjective. — *New-born, free-spoken.*

Present Participles preceded by Substantives. — *Fruit-bearing, music-making.*

Past Participles of the Strong Form preceded by Substantives. — *Heaven-born, bed-ridden.*

Past Participles of the Weak Form preceded by Substantives. — *Blood-stained.*

Past Participles of the Weak Form preceded by an Adjective. — *Dear-bought, fresh-made, new-made, new-laid.*

Verbal Substantives preceded by Substantives. — *Man-eater, woman-eater, horn-blower.*   Numerous.

Verbal Adjectives preceded by Substantives. — *Mop-headed, chicken-hearted.*

Verbal Adjectives preceded by Adjectives. — *Cold-hearted, flaxen-haired, hot-headed, curly-pated.*

§ 277.   Adverbs entering into composition are of two sorts : —

1st. Those that can be separated from the word with which they combine, and nevertheless appear as independent words ; as, *over, under, well,* &c.   These are called Separable Adverbs.

2d. Those that, when they are separated from the verb with which they combine, have no independent existence as separate words ; e. g. the syllable *un* in *unloose.*   These are called Inseparable Adverbs.

§ 278.   *Words preceded by Separable Adverbs.* — *Over-do, under-go, well-beloved,* &c.   Numerous.

§ 279.   *Words preceded by the Inseparable Adverb* be. — *Be-hove, be-fit, be-seem, be-lieve, be-lie, be-spatter, be-smear, be-get, be-labor, be-do, be-gin* (*on-ginnan* in Anglo-Saxon), *be-gird, be-hold, be-mourn, be-reave, be-deck, be-think, be-mire, be-rhyme.*   The forms throughout the allied languages are generally *bi* or *be.*

§ 280.   *Words formed by the Inseparable Adverb* un. — *Un-bind, un-do, un-loose, un-lock, un-wind.*   The forms of the Inseparable in the different allied lan-

guages are, in Mœso-Gothic, *and;* in Old High German, *ind, int, in;* in Old Saxon, *ant;* in Middle and New High German, *ent;* in Anglo-Saxon, *on;* as, *on-bindan* (*un-bind*), *on-don* (*un-do*), *onlýsan* (*un-loose*), *on-lúcan* (*un-lock*), *on-windan* (*un-wind*).

§ 281. *Words formed by the Inseparable Adverb* a. — *A-light, a-rouse, a-rise, a-wake, a-wak-en, a-bet, a-bide.* The forms of this Inseparable, different in different allied languages, are, in Mœso-Gothic, *us;* in Old High German, *ur, ar, ir, er, ër;* in Old Saxon and in Anglo-Saxon, *â;* as, *â-rîsan* (*a-rise*), *â-weccan* (*a-wake*).

§ 282. *Words formed by the Inseparable Adverb* for. — *For-get, for-do, fore-go, for-give, for-bid, for-bear, for-swear.* The *for* here is of a different origin, and different in meaning and power, from the *fore* in words like *fore-tell.* In different allied languages it takes different forms. In Mœso-Gothic, *faír, faúr, fra.* In Old High German, *far, fer, fir, for.* In Middle and New High German, *ver.* In Anglo-Saxon, *for.*

DERIVATION.

§ 283. Derivation is the tracing of a word from its original. In the wide sense of the word, the cases, numbers, and genders of nouns, the persons, moods, and tenses of verbs, the ordinal numbers, the degrees of comparison, and even compound words, are alike matters of derivation.

Derivation proper comprises *all the changes that words undergo which are not referable to some of the preceding heads.*

§ 284. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of a Vowel.* — The only vowel sound that in English constitutes by itself a form of derivation is that of the *ee* in *feet*, expressed for the most part by the letter *y*.[1] It occurs with two very distinct powers.

1. As a Diminutive; *babe*, *bab-y*. In Lowland Scotch it is far more common, and is spelt *ie*; as, *dogg-ie*, *lass-ie*, *ladd-ie*, *mous-ie*, *wif-ie*, = *little* (or *dear*) *dog*, *lass*, *lad*, *mouse*, *wife*. In the word *baby* its power as a diminutive is obsolete.

2. After certain words ending in *r*; as, *fish-er-y*, *rook-er-y*, *brav-er-y*, *fool-er-y*, *prud-er-y*, *slav-er-y*, *witch-er-y*, *nurs-er-y*, *stitch-er-y*, and a few others. Respecting these words it must be remembered, —

a. That they are Double Derivatives.

b. That the *r* is probably the same as the *r* in *children*. See § 131.

c. That the vowel sound is not of Saxon, or even Gothic origin. It originates from the *y* in words like *astronom-y*, *histor-y*, *prophec-y*, *necromanc-y*, &c., all of which are words derived, not from any Gothic language, but from the Latin or Greek. The original form of these endings was *ia*; as, *astronom-i-a*, *histor-i-a*, &c. Hence words like *fish-er-y*, &c., are improperly formed.

§ 285. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Liquid* L. — 1. *Substantives.* — *Gird-le*, *kern-el*.

2. *Adjectives.* — *Litt-le*, *mick-le*.

3. *Verbs.* — *Spark-le*.

§ 286. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Liquid* R. — *Substantives.* — Words that in Anglo-Saxon

---

[1] The *y* in words like *might-y* originated in *ig*; as *miht-ig*, A. S.

ended in *er*, and were (or would have been) of the masculine gender : — *laugh-t-er*, *slaugh-t-er*.

Words that in Anglo-Saxon ended in *er*, and were (or would have been) of the neuter gender : — *lay-er*, *lai-r* (Anglo-Saxon *læg-er*), *fodd-er* (from the root of *feed*).

Substantives that in Anglo-Saxon ended in *ere*, and were (or would have been) of the masculine gender. — These form a numerous and important class. They are almost all the names of agents, and if we subtract from almost any of them the ending *er*, the remainder is either a verb or a word that can be used as such ; e. g. a *bak-er* perform the act of *baking*, and, as such, is an agent (or one who acts or does), so that the word *bak-er* is the name of an agent. Subtract *er*, and the remainder is *bake*, a word that can be used as a verb, e. g. *to bake*, *I bake*, &c. — *Read-er*, *sinn-er*, *harp-er*, *full-er*, *begg-er* (or *begg-ar*), *hunt-er*, *lend-er*, *borrow-er*, *reap-er*, *mow-er*, *sow-er*, *plough-er*, *fish-er*, *deal-er*, *wander-er*, *writ-er*, *lead-er*, *steer-er*, *look-er*, *heal-er*, *cobbl-er*, *robb-er*, *teach-er*, *help-er*, *los-er*, *hear-er*, *buy-er*, *sell-er*, *shap-er*, *leap-er*, *runn-er*, *walk-er*, *jump-er*, *murder-er*, *slaughter-er*, *fiddl-er*, *giv-er*, *work-er*, *rid-er*, *kill-er*, *slay-er*, *slumber-er*, *sleep-er*, *keep-er*, *dream-er*, *teach-er*, *tell-er*, *bak-er*, *brew-er*, *thatch-er*, *weav-er*, *spinn-er*, *wait-er*, *eat-er*, *drink-er*, *din-er*, *rov-er*, *lov-er*, *mov-er*, *flatter-er*, *mill-er*, *glov-er*, *hatt-er*.

Substantives that in Anglo-Saxon ended in *ra*, and were (or would have been) masculine : — *gander* (Anglo-Saxon *gand-ra*).

Verbs. — *Hind-er*, *low-er*.

§ 287. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Liquid* N. — *Substantives.* —*Maid-en*, *gamm-on* (*game*), *mai-n* (as in *might and main*). That the *n* is no part of the original word in *mai-n*, we see from the word *may*. The idea in both *may* and *mai-n* is that of *power*.

Adjectives. — 1. Words where the *n* is preceded in the Old High German and the Old Saxon by *a* = *an*; e. g. *eik-an* (*own*), Old High German; *êg-an* (*own*), Old Saxon : — *ow-n*, *op-en*.

2. Words where the *n* is preceded in Mœso-Gothic by *ei*, in Old High German by *i*, and in Old Saxon by *i*; e. g. *þaúrn-ein-s* (*thorny*), Mœso-Gothic ; *îrd-in* (*earthen*), Old High German; *bôm-in* (*woody*, i. e. made of *beams*), Old Saxon. Words of this sort express in English the circumstance of the object to which they are applied being *made of the material of which* the radical part of the derivative is the name : thus, *gold-en* is a derivative from *gold ; gold* is the radical part of the derivative *gold-en ;* the radical word *gold* is the name of a material of which certain objects (such as *guineas*, &c.) may be made. When we say *golden guinea*, we apply the word *golden* to the object *guinea*, and express the circumstance of guineas being made of *gold*, or (in other words) of that material of which *gold* (the radical part of the derivative word *gold-en*) is the name. —*Oak-en*, *ash-en*, *beech-en*, *braz-en*, *flax-en*, *gold-en*, *lead-en*, *silk-en*, *wood-en*, *wooll-en*, *twigg-en* (obsolete), *hemp-en*, *wheat-en*, *oat-en*, *wax-en*.

§ 288. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the* Sound *of the Vowel* O, *originating in* ow *or* ov, *and spelt in the present English* ow. — Although it is proper

in all cases of grammar to consider the sound rather than the spelling of words, the derivatives in question are fitly placed in the present section. By comparison with *shade* and *mead*, the forms *shad-ow* and *mead-ow* are shown to be derivative; whilst the following forms prove that the *ow*, although now sounded as the vowel *o* (*shadd-o*, *medd-o*), originated in *w* or *v*; *skad-v-j-an* = to *sha-dow*, Mœso-Gothic; *scead-uw-es* = *shadow's*, Anglo-Saxon; *scead-ew-an* = to *sha-dow*, Anglo-Saxon.

§ 289. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Mute Consonant* T. — 1. *Substantives.* — Words which in Anglo-Saxon ended in *t* : — *gif-t, shrif-t, thef-t, wef-t* (*weave*), *rif-t, drif-t, thrif-t, fros-t* (*freeze*), *gris-t* (*grind*), *fligh-t, sigh-t, draugh-t* (*draw*), *weigh-t*.

2. Words which in Anglo-Saxon ended in *ta*. The compounds of the word *wright* (from the root *work*); such as *cart-wrigh-t, wheel-wrigh-t, mill-wrigh-t*, &c.

Adjective. — *Tigh-t* (*lie*).

§ 290. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Mute Consonant* D. — *Substantives.* — *Bran-d* (*burn*, *brenn*, obsolete), *floo-d* (*flow*), *mai-d* (*may* in Lowland Scotch), *see-d* (*sow*), *bur-d-en* (*bear*).

Adjectives. — *Dea-d* (*die*), *col-d* (*cool*). In the word *thir-d*, from *three*, the *d* stands for *th* (as in *fif-th*, &c.), in order to avoid the occurrence of the sound of *th* twice within the same syllable.

§ 291. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Mute Consonant* TH (Anglo-Saxon þ) *as sounded in* thin. — *Substantives.* — The following words ending in *th* are the names of abstract ideas ; *dea-th, bir-th* (*bear*), *heal-th, leng-th, bread-th, heigh-th, dep-th, mir-th, tru-th* (*trow*, Lowland Scotch), *weal-th, fil-th,*

til-th (*tillage*, or *tilled ground*), *ki-th* (as in the phrase *kith and kin*).

Adjectives. — The syllable *cou-th* in the compound word *un-cou-th*. This word originally meant *unknown*, originating in the word *ken = to know*. This we see from the following forms : *kun-þ-s*, in the Mœso-Gothic, and *chun-t*, in the Old High German, signifying *known* (*kenned*).

§ 292. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Mute Consonant* TH (Anglo-Saxon ð) *as sounded* in thine. — *Bur-th-en*, derived from *bear*.

§ 293. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Sound of the Mute Consonant* S, *sounded as in* sin. — *Substantives.* — In the word *goose* (*goo-se*) the *s* is no part of the original word, in which also an *n* and a *d* have been lost. Compare the German word *gan-s* and the English word *gand-er*. The *s* in *goo-se* is derivative.

§ 294. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Sound of the Z in* zeal *and the* S *in* flags (flagz). — *Verbs.* — *Clean-se* (*clenz*), from *clean*. In Anglo-Saxon *clæn-s-i-an*.

§ 295. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Mute Letter* K. — *Hill-ock*.

§ 296. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Sound of the Vowel* E (*as in* feet), *originating in* ig, *and spelt in the present English* y. — All the derivative adjectives that now end in *y* ended in Anglo-Saxon in *ig* ; as, *blood-y, craft-y, drear-y, might-y, mist-y, mood-y, merr-y, worth-y*, of which the Anglo-Saxon forms were *blód-ig, cræft-ig, dreór-ig, miht-ig, mist-ig, mód-ig, myr-ig, worth-ig*. Although it is proper in all cases

10

of grammar to consider the sound rather than the spelling of words, the derivatives in question are more fitly placed in the present section than elsewhere.

§ 297. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* ing. — *Farth-ing* ($\frac{1}{4}$), *rid-ing* [1] ($\frac{1}{3}$, a corruption from *thrith-ing*). Also, *clean-s-ing*, *dawn-ing*, *morn-ing*. In these words the *ing* was originally *ung*; as, *clæn-s-ung*, *dag-ung*, Anglo-Saxon. It is clear that forms like *cleansing*, from the Anglo-Saxon *clæns-ung*, are different in origin from the participles in *ing*, as *cleans-ing*. See § 269.

§ 298. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* l-ing. — *Gos-l-ing* (*little goose*), *duck-l-ing* (*little duck*), *dar-l-ing* (*little dear*), *hire-l-ing*, *found-l-ing*, *fond-l-ing*, *nest-l-ing*, &c. The words of this class are generally diminutives, or words expressive of smallness. The word *diminutive* is derived from the Latin word *diminuo* = to diminish.

§ 299. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* kin. — *Lamb-kin* (*little lamb*), *mann-i-kin* (*little man*). Words ending in *kin* are chiefly diminutives.

§ 300. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* rel. — *Cock-erel* (*little cock*), *pick-erel* (*little pike*). Diminutives.

§ 301. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* ard. — *Drunk-ard*, *stink-ard*.

§ 302. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* old. — *Thresh-old*.

§ 303. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* ern. — *East-ern*, *west-ern*, *north-ern*, *south-ern*.

---

[1] As the *three ridings of Yorkshire.*

§ 304. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* ish. — *Child-ish, Engl-ish, self-ish, whit-ish.* This class comprises several adjectives. It must not be thought that the forms in *ish* are examples of the sound of the *sh* in *shine* being used in derivation ; since the original form was *isk ; cild-isc* (*child-ish*), *Engl-isc* (*English*), Anglo-Saxon. This softening down of the sound of *sk* (or *sc*) into that of the *sh* in *shine* occurs in many languages.

§ 305. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* ness. — *Good-ness, bad-ness, wicked-ness, bright-ness, dark-ness, weari-ness, dreari-ness,* &c. These form a numerous and important class. The fact to be here noticed is, that the *n* is, most probably, no part of the original form. This was simply *ass,* or *uss ;* and hence the proper way of showing the structure of the words in question is to write them as follows : — *good-n-ess, bad-n-ess, dark-n-ess,* &c. The origin of the *n* has not been satisfactorily determined.

§ 306. *Derivation by Means of the Addition of the Syllable* ster. — *Song-ster, pun-ster.* Originally words in *str* were limited to the names of females, and were opposed to the substantives in *er* (§ 286), the names of *male* agents. Thus, in Anglo-Saxon,

sangere, a male singer		sængestre, a female singer.
bæcere, a male baker		bæcestre, a female baker.
fidelere, a male fiddler	were opposed to	fidelestre, a female fiddler.
webbere, a male weaver		webbestre, a female weaver.
rædere, a male reader		rædestre, a female reader.
seamere, a male seamer		seamestre, a female seamer (or *seamstress*).

The single word *spin-ster* still retains its feminine force.

§ 307. *Derivation by Means of Changing the Sound of a Consonant.* — *Pri*ce, *pri*ze; *clo*th, *clo*the;[1] *u*se, *u*se (pronounced *u*ze); *gra*ss, *gra*ze; *grea*se (pronounced *grea*ce), *grea*se (pronounced *grea*ze). In each of the pairs of words given above, the former is a substantive and the latter a verb.

The verb is formed from the substantive by changing the sharp mute into its corresponding flat one.

§ 308. *Derivation by Means of Changing the Sound of a Vowel.* — *Rise, raise; lie, lay; fall, fell; sit, set.* The generality of these words are verbs. There are, however, a few nouns; as, *top, tip; cat, kit.*

§ 309. *Derivation by Means of Transposing the Accent.* — See § 54. This takes place only with words *not* of Anglo-Saxon origin.

§ 310. Certain words have the appearance of being derived when they are really compound. This takes place when they alter in form, and no longer look like original, independent words. The adjectives and adverbs ending in *ly* are of this kind; such as *man-ly, bright-ly.* In present language the syllable *ly* has not, by itself, any meaning at all, and consequently is no separate, independent word. Originally, however, it *was* a separate and independent word; in Anglo-Saxon *lîc*, in Old High German *lîh*, in Mœso-Gothic *leiks.* In other words it was neither more nor less than the word *like.*

The same is the case with words ending in *ric* (as

---

[1] Pronounced *clodhe.*

bishop-ric), with words ending in *ship* (as *friend-ship*), with words ending in *hood* (as *man-hood*), and with words ending or beginning with *mis* or *miss* (as *a-miss*, *mis-take*), and with several others. In some older stages of language the words *ric*, *ship*, *hood*, *mis-* (or *-miss*), were separate, independent words, with separate, independent meanings. The precise meaning, however, is not always easily ascertained.

§ 311. In words like *command-ment*, *us-age*, *penetrable*, the syllables *ment*, *age*, and *able* are so many instances of derivation. The same is the case with words like *act-or* and *actr-ess*, &c. Now, respecting these endings, it must be remarked that they were unknown in Anglo-Saxon, and that they were also unknown in the earlier stages of all the allied languages. Their origin was from some language foreign to the original English. Some were introduced from the Latin, others from the French.

Now it is not proper to fix any foreign termination to a word of English, Anglo-Saxon, or Gothic extraction. If we do so, there are two languages in one word. In this respect, however, the best authors have occasionally erred; so that several words formed by an intermixture of languages are current in the present English. The word *shepherd* is of Gothic origin; the syllable *ess* (as in the sign of the feminine gender) is of French origin. Hence the word *shepherd-ess* is not wholly unexceptionable. We can say *tigr-ess* = *a female tiger*, but not *fox-ess* = *a female fox*. The reason of this is, because in *tigr-ess* both syllables are of French (or Latin) origin; whilst in *fox-ess* the first is Anglo-Saxon, the second French.

PART IV.

SYNTAX.

§ 312. The word *Syntax* is derived from the Greek words *syn* (*with* or *together*) and *taxis* (*arrangement*). It relates to the arrangement or putting together of words. Etymology deals with the forms of single words; Syntax, with the combination of more words than one, with the view of expressing a meaning, or forming sense. The chief points in syntax are Concord and Government, words which will be explained within a few sections.

§ 313. *Syntax of Substantives.* — The chief point to be noticed under this head is the *use of the Infinitive Verb as a Substantive*.

In the line,

> *To err is human, to forgive divine,*

the infinitive verb *to err* is equivalent in sense to the substantive *error;* whilst the infinitive verb *to forgive* is equivalent to the substantive *forgiveness.* The whole sentence is equivalent to *Error is human, forgiveness divine.* This use of the infinitive verb for a substantive is common in the Latin, the Greek, and in all the Gothic languages, with the exception of the Old Norse and the Mœso-Gothic.

§ 314. *Use of the Present Participle as a Substantive.* — The sentence, *Erring is human, forgiving is*

divine, is equivalent to *Error is human*, *forgiveness is divine*. In this case the present participles *erring* and *forgiving* are equivalent to the substantives *error* and *forgiveness*. This use of the present participle as a substantive is less general in other languages than the similar use of the infinitive verb.

§ 315. Other parts of speech are also used occasionally as substantives. In the sentence, *the blacks of Africa*, the word *blacks* is used as a substantive, as is obvious from its taking the plural form. In the sentence, *the blind lead the blind*, the word *blind* is not used as a substantive, as is evident from its not taking the plural form.

Again, in phrases like *ifs and ans*, *one long now*, &c., the words *if*, *an*, and *now*, originally conjunctions and adverbs, are used as substantives. *If* and *an* are equivalent to some such combinations as *cases of doubt expressed by if and an*, where the sense is that of a substantive ; whilst *now* is equivalent to some such combination as *the present time*, where the sense is also that of a substantive. These last-named modes of expression should be used rarely, and only with the sanction of the best writers.

§ 316. *Apposition.* — In the expression, *George, King of England*, the words *King* and *George* are said to be in apposition with each other. In expressions like this we must remark three things : —

1. That the substantives in apposition with each other are in the same case. The words *King* and *George* are both nominatives.

2. That they express the same thing. The word *George*, applied to that particular monarch, means the

same thing as the *King of England*, and the words *King of England* applied to the same monarch mean the same thing as *George*.

3. That words in apposition explain each other. If we say simply the *King of England*, we do not sufficiently explain ourselves ; since we may mean a *Henry*, an *Edward*, or a *William*. And if we say simply *George*, we do not sufficiently explain ourselves ; since we may mean any person in the world whose name is *George*. But if we say, *George, King of England*, we explain what *King* and what *George* is meant. Hence the two substantives *King* and *George* explain each other.

Words that thus explain each other, mean the same thing, and are in the same case, may be said to be *placed alongside of each other*, or to be in apposition. The Latin word *appositio* means *putting by the side of*. The following are specimens of apposition : —

Solomon, the son of David.
Croesus, King of Lydia.
The brave man, Leonidas.
The capital of England, London.
Content, the source of happiness.
John's the farmer's wife.
Oliver's the spy's evidence.

For words to be in apposition with each other, they must be in the same case.

§ 317. In phrases like those exhibited in § 316, which were instances of apposition, the two substantives that were placed together (as *content* and *source of happiness*) were names for the same thing.

Two substantives, however, may be placed together,

being names for different things, and therefore *not* in apposition; as in phrases like *the father's son, the son of the father; the children's bread, the bread of the children.* In these cases the word *bread* does not mean the same thing as the word *children;* neither are the words *father* and *son* different names for the same object.

When two substantives meaning different things are connected together in the same term, one is said to be *governed* by the other, or to be in a state of *government.* The words *children's* and *father's* are governed by the words *bread* and *son* respectively.

Of two substantives thus placed together, the one that is governed by the other is always in the possessive case: *the man's hat; the woman's ring; the boy's horse,* &c.; where *man's, woman's,* and *boy's* are possessive cases, governed by the words *hat, ring,* and *horse* respectively.

In phrases like the *hat of the boy,* the word *boy* is governed by the preposition *of,* and is in the objective case.

As the particular case in which a word stands *depends* upon the words that are taken along with it, the word *government* is not ill chosen as the name for the *dependence* of one word upon another.

As different parts of speech require the words taken along with them to be in different cases, they may be said to *govern* different cases; thus, a substantive governs one case, verbs and prepositions another. The substantive, as stated above, governs the possessive case.

§ 318. Sometimes two or three words in a state of government may be dealt with as a single word. This

we shall understand by attending to the nature of the following expression : *the King of Saxony's army.* In this expression three things are very evident.

1. That the *army* is spoken of as belonging, not to the country *Saxony*, but to the *king* of that country.

2. That the sign of the possessive case naturally comes after the word *king ;* as *the king's army.*

3. That, as the expression stands, the *army* appears to be spoken of as belonging to *Saxony.*

Yet this is not really the fact. The truth is, that the whole expression is dealt with as a single word.

§ 319. *Ellipsis.* — Sometimes a possessive case stands alone, without any substantive to govern it. In this case the governing substantive is said to be *understood ;* that is, the hearer is supposed to understand what is meant, without the sentence being expressed in full. Sentences of this sort are said to be *elliptical,* or to exhibit an *ellipsis.* The word *ellipsis* is derived from the Greek word *elleipein = to fall short of.* The following are examples of *ellipsis.*

1. *This was bought at Rundell and Bridge's.* Understand *shop.*

2. *I am going to St. Paul's.* Understand *cathedral,* or some such word.

§ 320. *Pleonasm.* — This word, derived from the Greek word *pleonazein = to be in excess,* is the opposite of ellipsis. Pleonasm is exemplified in § 333.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 321. As the adjectives are destitute of gender, case, and number, and always appear in the same form (*a* good *man, a* good *woman,* good *things*), their syntax is limited.

§ 322. The positive degree preceded by *more* and *most* is equivalent to the comparative and superlative forms in *er* and *est* respectively.

When the adjective is both monosyllabic and of Anglo-Saxon origin, there is no doubt that the preference is to be given to the form in *er*. Thus, *wiser* is preferable to *more wise*. When, however, the adjective is compound, or trisyllabic, the combination of the positive degree with *more* is preferable.

Some dissyllabic adjectives form their degrees in *er* and *est*, some with *more* and *most*, and some in both ways indifferently. Whether one form shall be used in preference to the other depends upon the nature of the particular word.

§ 323. In the comparative degree we occasionally find, even in good writers, besides the syllable *er*, the word *more*; as, *the more serener spirit*. Expressions like these are pleonastic, since the word *more* is a superfluity.

§ 324. In the superlative degree we occasionally find, even in good writers, besides the syllable *est*, the word *most*; as, *the most straitest sect*. Expressions like these are pleonastic, since the word *most* is a superfluity.

§ 325. It is better, in speaking of only two objects, to use the comparative degree rather than the superlative, even where we use the article *the*. *This is the better of the two*, is preferable to *this is the best of the two*.

§ 326. The adjective *like* governs a case, and it is the only adjective that does so. When we say this is **good for John**, the government proceeds not from the

adjective *good*, but from the preposition *for*. The word *like*, however, really governs a case. We do not say, *this is like to me*, but *this is like me ; this is like him ; this is like them*, *like her*, *like whom*.

In Anglo-Saxon the case governed by the adjective *like* was the dative ; and it may be said, that, at the present time, the word in question governs the objective on the strength of that case having originally possessed a dative character. But it would be better, in the instances of the above pronouns at least, to recognize a dative case as still existing in English.

§ 327. The present is the proper place for explaining the meaning of the word *concord*. It is derived from the Latin word *concordia*, and signifies *agreement*.

The word *man* is the name of a male. It is a substantive of the masculine gender. The word *she* relates to a female. It is a pronoun of the feminine gender. We cannot say, *I saw the man and* she (meaning *the man*) *saw me*, for reasons that are very evident. The words *she* and *man* are applied to objects of different genders, consequently to different objects ; hence they cannot be used in speaking of the same thing. If we so use them, there is a disagreement (or *discord*) in respect to gender. *I saw the* woman *and* she *saw me*, is good sense. *I saw the* man *and* he *saw me*, is also good sense ; since the word *she* is of the same gender with *woman*, and *he* of the same gender with *man ;* consequently each pair of words (*he* and *man*, *she* and *woman*) agrees in gender ; in other words, there is the concord of gender.

§ 328. The second kind of concord is the Concord of Number. The word *this* is of the singular, the word *books* is of the plural number. If we say either, *this books are useful*, or, *these book is useful*, we violate the concord of number, but if we say, *these books*, we observe the concord of number ; and so we do if we say, *this book*. For a third concord, the concord of person, see § 358. For a fourth, the concord of case, see § 316. 1.

It is very clear that there can be no practical violation of the concords unless there be different forms for the different persons and numbers. We can say, *good book*, or *good books*, because the word *good*, like other adjectives, is the same in both numbers. It is only when we come to the pronouns, where there *are* different forms for the different numbers, that there is any occasion to take cognizance of the concords.

Concord and government are the chief parts of syntax.

§ 329. *Violations* (*real or apparent*) *of the Concord of Gender.* — In the following expressions there is an apparent violation of the concord.

1. *Gold*, whose *touch seductive leads to crime.* — According to the view generally taken, the word *gold* is of the neuter gender, whilst *whose* is either masculine or feminine. In this case there is a violation of the concord of gender. Still, the matter is susceptible of explanation. We may say that *gold* is personified, and dealt with as if it were a person either male or female, in the same way that *Sin, Death, Virtue, Vice,* &c., are personified.

Or else we may deny that the word *whose* is *exclusively* either masculine or feminine. The original possessive form in Anglo-Saxon was *hwæs* (*whose*), and it was used for all three genders alike.

2. *The cities* who *aspired to liberty.* — The word *cities* is neuter, the word *who* is either masculine or feminine. The expression was probably considered by the author who used it, if he thought about it at all, as open to the same explanation as the one last mentioned.

The unexceptionable and unequivocal forms of the two expressions just exhibited would be, — 1. *Gold, the touch* of which *seductive leads to crime.* 2. *The cities* which *aspired to liberty.*

§ 330. *Violations (real or apparent) of the Concord of Number.* — 1. In expressions like *the men that fought at Waterloo*, there is an apparent violation of the concord of number ; *men* being plural, whilst *that* (see § 188) is in form and origin singular. Notwithstanding, however, the fact of *that* being originally of the neuter gender and the singular number, it may now be considered that the practice of language permits it to be used for both numbers, and all genders, indifferently ; as, *the woman that speaks, the man that speaks, the children that speak.*

2. *I have not travelled* this *twenty years.* — As *this* is singular, and *twenty years* plural, there is an apparent violation of the concord of number. Still, it is only apparent. The words *twenty years*, may be considered to mean, not *twenty separate years taken severally*, but *a number of years amounting to twenty dealt with as a single period.* In this latter case the words

twenty years, though plural in form, are singular in sense.

3. *These sort of people.* — Here *these* is plural, and *sort* is singular ; so that there is a violation (real or apparent) of the concord of number. Still, as the word *sort* implies the existence of more persons than one, the expression is open to the same explanation as the preceding one.

The reason of this confusion of number is indicated in § 125. There are in all languages certain substantives called collectives. Of these collectives the word *sixpence* is a good example. It involves two notions : (1.) that of *six separate pennies ;* (2.) that of *six pennies dealt with as a single sum.* In the first case it is plural ; since in talking of *six separate pennies* we contemplate a plurality of parts. In the second case it is singular, since in talking of *a single sum* we lose sight of the plurality of parts, and contemplate only the unity of sum that results from them. In all collective substantives there is a mixture of two notions, — of that expressed by the singular, and of that expressed by the plural number ; and this causes apparent irregularities in syntax.

Army, parliament, people, mob, gang, set, family, &c., are collectives.

By remembering that in all languages there is a tendency to *personify*, we can explain many apparent violations of the Concord of Gender.

By remembering that in all languages there is a great number of *collective* substantives, we can explain many apparent violations of the Concord of Number.

§ 331. *Violation of the Concord of Case.* — *I bought*

this at Smith's the bookseller. Here the words *Smith's*
and *bookseller* mean the same thing; and are, conse-
quently, in apposition with each other. As such, they
ought to be in the same case, which they are not.
Smith's is the possessive, *bookseller* the nominative
form. This is a violation of the concord of case. The
proper expression is either *Smith's the bookseller's,* ac-
cording to § 316; or *Smith the bookseller's,* according
to § 318.

This last example ought properly to have appeared
under *the Syntax of Substantives.* It was considered,
however, that the pronoun was the best head under
which the nature of the concords could be explained.

§ 332. The Concord of Person will be noticed under
the Syntax of the Verb.

§ 333. *Pleonasm in the Syntax of Pronouns.* — The
following expressions are pleonastic (§ 320). The
superfluous pronoun is in each case printed in italics.

> 1. The king, *he* is just.
> 2. I saw *her*, the queen.
> 3. The men, *they* were there.
> 4. The king, *his* crown.

This last example is of importance in the history of
Grammar. Expressions like it occur frequently in the
old writers, especially in the Liturgy of the Church;
as, *for Jesus Christ, his sake.* On the strength of this,
it has been imagined by certain writers that the posses-
sive case throughout the language arose out of an ab-
breviation of this mode of speech, and that *the King's
grace* was nothing more than a shortened form of *the
King, his grace.* This view is erroneous, and, it is to
be hoped, abandoned.

1. Expressions like the *Queen's Majesty* are not capable of being derived from *the Queen, his Majesty ;* since the pronoun would in such a case be, not *his*, but *her ;* as, *the Queen, her Majesty.*

2. Expressions like *the children's bread* are not capable of being derived from *the children, his bread ;* since the pronoun would in such a case be, not *his*, but *their ;* as, *the children, their bread.*

3. The oldest Anglo-Saxon forms exhibit no traces of the sound of *h.* The possessive cases of *end, cyning* (*king*), *smið* (*smith*), are *end-es, cyning-es, smið-es,* not *end-his, cyning-his, smið-his.*

4. The form *his* itself is not accounted for by the view in question ; since we cannot say that *his* is an abbreviated form of *he his.*

5. In languages allied to those of the Gothic stock, where there is no word like *his* in existence, the sign of the possessive (or genitive) case is still *s.*

a. In the Sanskrit, or old language of Hindostan, of the same tribe with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *s ;* as, *pad-as* = *of a foot,* or *foot's.*

b. In the Zend, or old language of Persia, of the same tribe with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *s ;* as, *dughdhar-s* = *of a daughter,* or *daughter's.*

c. In the Greek, of the same tribe with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *s ;* as, *odont-os* = *of a tooth,* or *tooth's.*

d. In the Latin, of the same tribe with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *s ;* as, *dent-is* = *of a tooth,* or *tooth's.*

e. In the Lithuanic, or language of Lithuania, of the same tribe with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *s;* as, *dughter-s = of a daughter,* or *daughter's.*

The same is the case in many other of the allied languages.

§ 334. *Relative and Antecedent.* — The pronoun *who* is called a Relative Pronoun. The pronoun *that* is also used relatively. The word *which* is a compound of *who ;* and, consequently, like *who* and *that*, is relative also. A relative pronoun always relates to some substantive or pronoun that has gone before it; as,

1. He *who* wrote the letter is here.
2. She *who* wrote the letter is here.
3. The child *that* you spoke of is here.
4. The men *that* fought are here.
5. The dagger *which* stabbed Cæsar.
6. The daggers *which* stabbed Cæsar.

In all these examples, the words *who, that,* and *which* are relatives.

The word to which the relative refers (or relates) is called the *Antecedent*, or the word *going before ;* from the Latin word *antecedens = going before.* The words *he, she, child, men, dagger, daggers,* are antecedents.

§ 335. The relative is always in the same number and gender as the antecedent, but not necessarily in the same case. This is called the Concord of the Relative and Antecedent.

§ 336. *The Position of the Relative and Antecedent.* — Sometimes there are two words in a term, each of

which may be an antecedent, whilst there is but a single relative. In this case the relative refers to the last of the two. The expression, *Solomon, the son of David, who built the temple*, is exceptionable; since *who* (the relative) refers in strict grammar to *David*; whereas it is well known that *David* was not the *builder* of the *temple*.

Still, the expression is capable of being justified by § 318, according to which we may look upon *Solomon, the son of David*, as a single word, capable of being written *Solomon-the-son-of-David*, *who*, &c.

§ 337. *The books I want are here*. This is a specimen of a true ellipsis. The phrase includes two propositions: (1.) the books are here; (2.) I want. The *which* that should connect the two statements is wanting.

Him I accuse has entered. Shakespeare. This is equivalent to *He whom I accuse has entered*. When the relative and antecedent are in different cases, and the relative is omitted, the antecedent is sometimes put in the case in which the relative would have been.

§ 338. *Which* has so nearly replaced *what*, that the general use of this last word with its proper power, as a neuter relative, is, in the present English, vulgar; e. g.

> The dagger *what* stabbed Cæsar.

In one case, however, *what* is used as a true relative; namely, when the antecedent is either *this* or *that;* e. g.

> This is *what* I mean; *not*, This is *which* I mean.

> That is *what* I mean; *not*, That is *which* I mean.

§ 339. The word *as*, naturally a conjunction, is occasionally used as a relative pronoun: *the man as rides*

to market. This mode of speaking or writing should not be imitated.

§ 340. *The Article* a *or* an. — The word *an* (or *a*) is called an Article, from the Latin word *articulus* = *a joint.* It can only occur combined or conjoined with other words; as, *a man, an island, a woman.* It is the same for all genders; as, *a man, a woman, a sword.*

It is also the same for all cases, as *a man's, a woman's, a sword's, of a man, to a man, strike a man,* &c.

It occurs only conjoined with substantives of the singular number. It is, in origin, the numeral *one;* in Scotch, *ane.* This use of the numeral *one* for an article is common in many languages.

§ 341. The article *an* (or *a*) is used where we speak of some single object without specifying or defining it. For this reason the word *an* (or *a*) is called the Indefinite Article.

§ 342. The words *an* and *a* are identical. In the latter the sound of the *n* is omitted. Which of the two forms is to be used depends upon the nature of the following substantive.

1. When the substantive begins with the *sound* of a vowel, we use *an;* as, *an ant, an egg, an island, an ostrich, an hour, an heir.* In these last two words the *h* is not sounded (or mute), so that the words *heir* and *hour* really begin with the sounds of vowels.

2. When the substantive begins with the *sound* of a consonant, a semivowel, or *h*, we use *a;* as, *a pan, a bat, a fane, a vane, a tile, a den, a thought, a coat, a kitten, a gun, a sun, a zany, a chest, a jest, a house, a hill, a hint, a hinderance,* &c.

Obs. — The following words (and others like them),

although their first letter is a vowel, are preceded by the form *a*: *a ewer*, *a unit*, *a one* (as in *many a one*). We do not say *an ewer*, *an unit*, *an one*, although the words are frequently written so.

Of this we shall see the reason if we remember the *sounds* of the words in question. *Ewer*, *unit*, *one* (and other words like them), are sounded *yoo-er*, *yoo-nit*, *won*, in which case they begin, not with a vowel, but a semivowel.

§ 343. *The Definite Article* the. — The word *the* is called the Definite Article because it specifies or defines the substantive with which it is conjoined ; as, *the man*, *the woman*, *the child ;* by which expression some particular *man*, *woman*, or *child* is signified.

The definite article is the same for all genders ; as, *the man*, *the woman*, *the child*.

It is also the same for all cases ; as, *the man's*, *the children's*, *the men's*, *of the man*, *to the man*.

It is also the same for all numbers ; as, *the man*, *the men ; the woman*, *the women ; the child*, *the children*.

The definite article was originally a demonstrative pronoun, of the nature of which it partakes. Definite articles, originating in demonstrative pronouns, occur in most languages.

§ 344. When two or more substantives come together, meaning the same thing, the article is joined to the first of them only. We say *the secretary and treasurer*, or *a secretary and treasurer*, when the two offices are held by *one* person.

§ 345. When two or more substantives come together, meaning different things, the article is repeated, and conjoined with each of them. We say *the sec-*

retary and the treasurer, or *a secretary and a treas-*
urer, when the two offices are held by *separate* per-
sons.   This rule is not rigidly adhered to.

§ 346. For the use of *it* and *there*, see the Syntax
of Verbs.

§ 347. Instead of the true nominative *ye*, we use
(with few exceptions) the objective case *you ;* as, *you*
speak, *you two are speaking*.   In this case we substi-
tute one case for another.

§ 348. Instead of the true pronoun of the second
person singular, *thou*, we use (with few exceptions) the
pronoun of the second person plural, *ye ;* and that (as
is seen in § 347) in the objective rather than the nom-
inative case: *you speak* = *thou speakest*.

It is a remarkable fact, that there are very few lan-
guages where the pronoun of the second person singu-
lar (the equivalent to the English word *thou*) is used,
except in solemn discourse.   Sometimes the pronoun
of the second person plural, sometimes that of the third
person plural, serves as its substitute.

§ 349. By referring to § 188, we shall see that
the word *those* is the true demonstrative form, whilst
the words *they* and *them* partake of the nature of per-
sonal pronouns.   Now expressions like *those men*, and
take those things away, are strictly demonstrative ;
so that the proper word to be used is *those*.   Instead
of this, however, we occasionally hear such expres-
sions as *they men*, and *take them things away*.   Al-
though not to be imitated, the latter expressions are
capable of being explained, through the fact of the
original power of *they* and *them* being demonstrative.
(See §§ 185 – 188.)

§ 350. For the nature of the Possessive Pronouns, see §§ 190, 191, 192.

The words *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are *Cases*, in the same way that the word *father's* is a Case.

The words *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*, are Adjectives, in the same way that *good* is an Adjective.

If the words *his*, *her*, and *its* were not Possessive *Cases*, but were true Adjectives, such expressions as *his mother*, *her father*, *its sister*, would violate the concord of gender; since *his* is masculine, whilst *mother* is feminine; *her* feminine, whilst *father* is masculine; and *its* neuter, whilst *sister* is feminine.

§ 351. That, however, there are certain differences between the construction of Possessive Cases, like *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, *their*, and the construction of Possessive Cases, like *father's*, *mother's*, &c., may be seen by attending to the following details.

This is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's. — The first thing to be remarked here is, the difference in sense between a sentence like the one above and a sentence like *this is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton.* The latter proposition means, *this is how Sir Isaac Newton was discovered;* the former means, *of Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries this is one;* or *this is one of the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries.* Now the difference in sense is expressed by the presence or the absence of the *'s* in *Newton's;* that is, by the fact of the noun *Newton* being in the possessive case. In the first sentence the word *Newton's* is possessive; and the question arises as to what word it is governed by. We see this at once by bearing in mind

the meaning of the sentence. The three sentences, (1.) *this is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's* ; (2.) *this is one of Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries* ; (3.) *of Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries this is one* (meaning nearly the same thing, and differing widely from *this is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton*), are all, if closely examined, incomplete in expression. The full expression would be, (1.) *this is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's* (*discoveries*) ; (2.) *this is one of the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton's* (*discoveries*) ; (3.) *of the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton's* (*discoveries*) *this* (*discovery*) *is one* (*discovery*). We now see that, in the original sentence, the word *Newton's* is in the possessive case ; because, according to § 317, it is governed by the substantive *discoveries*, not expressed, but understood.   Again : —

This is a picture of a friend, means one thing ; whilst *this is a picture of a friend's*, means another thing. The latter, expressed in full, would be, *this is a picture of* (or *from amongst*) *a friend's* (*pictures*).

An enemy of the emperor, means *a man who is hostile to the emperor*. *An enemy of the emperor's*, means *one of the emperor's enemies*.

A notion of a brother, means *a notion concerning a brother*. *A notion of a brother's*, means *one* (amongst others) *of a brother's notions*.

In all sentences like those just quoted (*a notion of a brother's*, &c.) there are *two* substantives ; one which the article *a* agrees with, and which is expressed ; and one by which *brother's* is governed, and which is omitted, as being understood.

§ 352. Now if the Pronominal Possessive Cases, *my*

thy, &c., were in *all* respects like the Possessive Cases of the Substantives (*father's, mother's*, &c.), we should be able to use them where we have used the words *emperor's, brother's,* &c.; in other words, we should be able to say, *an enemy of my, a notion of thy,* &c.

But this we cannot do; which shows that the construction of the words in question, although Possessive Cases, is not altogether identical with the construction of the Possessive Cases of Substantives.

Nevertheless, their construction is essentially and really that of a Possessive Case.

§ 353. The words *mine, thine, ours, yours, hers, its, theirs,* are (as stated above) Adjectives, and not cases.

This is the fact, even although the words *our-s, your-s, her-s, it-s, their-s,* exhibit the sign of the Possessive Case, *s.*

More than this; in such expressions as *the sister you speak about is his,* the word *his* is *feminine;* i. e. if the adjective were inflected, and if there were the sign of a feminine gender at all, the word *his* would take that sign.

This illustrates the difference between the Possessive Construction and the Adjectival Construction.

§ 354. Nevertheless, the words *mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours,* cannot be used in all cases where adjectives can be used; in other words, just as there were certain differences between Possessives like *my, thy,* &c., and Possessives like *father's,* &c., so are there certain differences between Adjectival Pronouns, like *mine, thine,* and simple Adjectives, like *good, black,* &c.

We can say, *these are good books,* but we cannot say, *these are mine books.*

Rule 1. — The Adjectival Pronouns like *mine, thine, ours,* &c., are only used when the substantive is *understood ;* as, *this book is mine,* i. e. *my book.*

Rule 2. — The Possessive Cases are only used when the substantive is *expressed ;* as, *this is my book* (not *this is mine book,* nor yet *this book is my*).

Examples.

This book is *my book ;*	This book is *mine.*
This picture is *thy picture ;*	This picture is *thine.*
This dress is *her dress ;*	This dress is *hers.*
These pens are *our pens ;*	These pens are *ours.*
These clothes are *your clothes ;*	These clothes are *yours.*
These horses are *their horses ;*	These horses are *theirs.*

§ 355. *Construction of the Word* Self *in Composition with Pronouns.* — 1. In the words *my-self, thy-self, our-selves, your-selves,* the word *self* (or *selves*) governs the words *my, thy, our, your,* just as, in the expression *John's hat,* the word *hat* governs the word *John's ;* so that *my, thy,* are possessive cases.

2. This is not the case with the words *him-self* and *them-selves.* Here the words *self* and *selves* are in apposition with the words *him* and *them* respectively.

3. The word *her-self* is ambiguous; since it is doubtful whether *her* be a possessive or an objective case.

4. The word *it-self* is also ambiguous ; since it is doubtful whether it originated in *it-self* or *its-self.*

This inconsistency in the use of the word *self* in composition with pronouns is as old as the time of the Anglo-Saxons.

Obs. — Whenever any other word comes between

the personal pronouns and the word *self*, the personal pronoun is *always* in the genitive case : *my own self, thy own self, our own selves, your own selves, his* (not *him*) *own self, her own self, its* (not *it*) *own self, their* (not *them*) *own selves.*

Obs. — In words like *himself* and *themselves*, the apposition is strictly true and correct only when the words are in the objective case : *he flatters himself, he has hurt himself ; they flatter themselves, he flatters himself.* When the word is in the nominative case, the apposition is incorrect. *He himself is coming, they themselves are coming*, are anomalous, although current expressions, since *they* and *selves, he* and *self*, are nominative forms, whilst *him* and *them* are objective. This is to be explained by overlooking the compound character of the words *himself* and *themselves*, and considering the whole formation as a single word in the nominative case.

Probably the inaccuracy in question is too inveterate to be remedied, otherwise the following rule would hold good.

Rule. — Whenever the word *self* is in the nominative case, the personal pronoun should be in the possessive : *myself is weak ; thyself is weak ; ourselves are strong ; yourselves are strong ; his* (not *him*) *self is strong ; herself is fair ; its self is good ; theirselves are bad.*

As it is, the words *him* and *them* are neither in a state of government nor a state of apposition.

For further observations upon the compounds of *self*, see § 378.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

§ 356. The chief points in the Syntax of Verbs are, (1.) the Concord of Number; (2.) the Concord of Person.

§ 357. *Concord of Number.* — Whenever a single object is spoken of, the verb is used in the singular number; as, *I speak, thou speakest, he speaks; the man thinks; the horse neighs*, &c.

Whenever more objects than one are spoken of, the verb is put in the plural number; as, *we speak, ye speak, they speak; the men think; the horses neigh*, &c.

In each of these cases the verb is in the same number with the substantive or pronoun preceding, and, consequently, may be said to *agree* (or to have *concord*) with it in respect to number.

§ 358. *Concord of Person.* — Where a person speaks of himself, the verb is in the first person singular; as, *I read, I think.*

Where a person speaks *to* another person, the verb is in the second person singular; as, *thou readest, thou thinkest.*

Where a person speaks *of* any other person (or any other object whatever), the verb is in the third person singular; as, *he reads, the man reads, the woman reads, the child reads, the man thinks, the horse neighs, the dog barks*, &c.

Where a person speaks of himself and others, the verb is in the first person plural; as, *we read, we think.*

Where more persons than one are spoken *to*, the verb is in the second person plural; as, *ye read, ye think.*

Where more persons (or objects) than one are spoken *of*, the verb is in the third person plural; as, *they read, the men read, the women read, the children read, the men think, the horses neigh, the dogs bark,* &c.

In each of these cases the verb is not only in the same number with the substantive or pronoun preceding, but in the same person also. Consequently it may be said to agree (or to have *concord*) with it in respect to person.

§ 359. *Government of Verbs.* — Laying out of the account the verb substantive (for which see §§ 203, 204), verbs are of two sorts: (1.) transitive; (2.) intransitive.

In saying, *I strike the iron*, the verb *strike* denotes an action. It also does something more; it denotes an action that has an effect upon an object; since the word *iron* is the name of an object, and the word *strike* is the name of an action that affects that object. In this case the *action* may be said to *pass off* from the agent (i. e. *the person who strikes*) to the object (i. e. *the iron*). Verbs expressing action capable of affecting objects are called Transitive Verbs; from the Latin word *transire* = *to pass over.*

In saying, *I walk*, the verb *walk* denotes an action. It does not, however, denote an action that has any effect upon any object whatever. The action alone, in its simplest form, is stated to take place. Verbs like *walk* are called *Intransitive*, because *no* action can be said to pass off from them to any object.

§ 360. Respecting the Government of these two sorts of verbs, there are the two following rules: —

1. Transitive verbs always govern the substantive in

the objective case ; as, *I strike him, he strikes me, they teach us, the man leads the horse*, &c.

2. Intransitive verbs govern no case at all ; as, *I sleep, I walk, I think*, &c.

Remark. — The same word has often two meanings, one of which is transitive and the other intransitive ; as,

A. 1. *I move*, — where the verb is intransitive, and denotes the mere act of motion. 2. *I move my limbs*, — where the verb is transitive, and where the action affects a certain object (*my limbs*).

B. 1. *I walk*, — where the verb is intransitive, and denotes the mere act of walking. 2. *I walk the horse*, — where the words *I walk* are equivalent to *I cause to walk*, and are also transitive, denoting an action affecting a certain object (*the horse*).

This fact of the same verb having transitive and intransitive meanings must be continually borne in mind ; otherwise, transitive verbs will appear to be without an objective case, and intransitive verbs to govern one.

§ 361. *Reflectives.* — In such phrases as *he sat him down, sit thee down*, the personal pronoun in the objective case is used reflectively. As a general rule, whenever we use the personal pronoun reflectively, we employ the word *self* in combination with it. The exceptions to this rule are either poetical expressions or imperative moods.

The reflective is equivocal in

"Busk *ye*, busk *ye*, my bonny, bonny bride,"
since *ye* may be either a nominative case governing the verb *busk*, or an objective case governed by it.

In the phrase, *I fear me*, the verb is intransitive ; in other words the word *me* does not express the object of any action, whilst the meaning is the same as in the simple expression *I fear*.

§ 362. *The Partitive Construction.* — Certain transitive verbs, the action of which is extended not to the whole, but only to a part of their object, are followed by the preposition *of* and an objective case. *To eat of the fruit of the tree* = *to eat a part* (or *some*) *of the fruit of the tree.* It is not necessary here to suppose the ellipsis of the word *part* (or *some*). The genitive case after the verb formerly expressed this partitive sense, and the preposition *of* followed by the objective now serves as an equivalent for the partitive genitive.

§ 363. In phrases like *give it him, whom shall I give it*, the *him* and *whom* are properly dative cases.

In the phrase, *Rob me the exchequer*, the *me* is expletive, i. e. not necessary to the sense, and is equivalent to *for me*. The pronoun in such expressions is properly in the dative case.

§ 364. *Syntax in Respect to Mood.* — When an absolute command is made, the verb is used in the imperative mood ; as, *go ! walk ! stand ! do not go ! go not ! walk not ! do this ! come hither !*

When two verbs come together, the latter is used in the infinitive mood ; as, *I wish to go, I long to speak, I have to write, let me go, dare you come ? when shall I go ?* &c.

When an action is mentioned as absolutely taking place, as absolutely having taken place, or as absolutely being about to take place, the verb is used in the in-

dicative mood ; as, *I speak, thou speakest, he speaks ; we speak, ye speak, they speak.*

When an action is mentioned as taking place under certain conditions and contingencies, rather than as absolutely taking place, the verb is used in the conjunctive mood ; as, *if he speak, if he move, if he stand; not if he speak-s, move-s, stand-s.*

§ 365. *Syntax of the Infinitive Mood.* — A verb in the infinitive mood is preceded by the particle *to;* as, *I begin to speak, he wishes to run, he fears to move.*

§ 366. Except in the case of the words *may, can, will, shall, let, must, do.*

I may go ; not *I may to go.*

I might go ; not *I might to go.*

I can move ; not *I can to move.*

I could move ; not *I could to move.*

I will speak ; not *I will to speak.*

I would speak ; not *I would to speak.*

I shall wait ; not *I shall to wait.*

I should wait ; not I should to wait.

Let me go ; not *let me to go.*

I do speak ; not *I do to speak.*

I did speak ; not *I did to speak.*

Also with the verb *dare* when it is intransitive, and means *to venture ;* as,

" *I dare do all that doth become a man :*

Who dares do more, is none." — SHAKESPEARE.

When, however, it signifies *to challenge* or *defy,* and is transitive, it requires *to* to accompany the infinitive mood following ; as,

" *I dare thee but to breathe upon my love.*"

SHAKESPEARE.

Also with the following verbs : *see, hear, feel, bid, have, need.*

Thou shalt not see *thy brother's ox or his ass* fall *down by the way.*

We heard *him* say, *I will destroy this temple.*

I feel *the pain* abate.

He bade *her alight.*

" *I would fain* have *any one* name *to me that tongue that any one can speak as he should do by the rules of grammar.*" — LOCKE.

We need *only* go *to London.*

§ 367. *Syntax of the Conjunctive Mood.* — Certain words denote contingency or uncertainty. The verb that accompanies these words denotes an act that *may* or may not take place ; that is, an act which will take place under certain conditions and contingencies. These words are, *except, lest, so, before, ere, till, if, however, though, although, unless, whosoever, whatever, whether, that ;* as,

1. " Except I be *by Silvia in the night,*
    There is no music in the nightingale."

<div align="right">SHAKESPEARE.</div>

2. " *Let us go and sacrifice to the Lord our God,* lest *he* fall *upon us with pestilence.*" — OLD TESTAMENT.

3.   " *Revenge back on itself recoils.*
    Let it.   I reck not, so *it* light *well aimed.*"

<div align="right">MILTON.</div>

4. " *Let there be some more test made of my metal,*
    Before *so noble and great a figure*
    Be *stamped upon it.*" — SHAKESPEARE.

5. " *Seek out his wickedness* till *thou* find *none.*" — OLD TESTAMENT.

6. " If *this* be *the case*."

7. " However *it* be."

8. " Though *our outward man* perish." — OLD TESTAMENT.

9. " Although *my house* be *not so* with God." — OLD TESTAMENT.

10. " *He shall not eat of the holy thing* unless *he* wash *his flesh with water*." — OLD TESTAMENT.

11. " *He that troubleth you shall bear his judgment*, whosoever *he* be." — OLD TESTAMENT.

12. " Whatever be *our fate, yet let us try*." — POPE.

13. " Whether *it* were *I or they*."

14. " *Beware* that *thou* bring *not my son thither*." — OLD TESTAMENT.

If *that* be understood, the construction is the same ; as, *see thou tell no man ;* equivalent to *see that thou tell no man.*

Obs. — As none of the above *always* denote contingency, none of them are *always* followed by a conjunctive mood.

§ 368. When two verbs are connected by the conjunction *that*, signifying intention, or referring to an action that has not taken place, they are both in the same tense ; as, *I* do *so* that *I* may *gain by it ;* where *do* and *may* are both present tenses. On the other hand, in the sentence, *I* did *this* that *I* might *gain by it*, the two words *did* and *might* are both preterites.

Obs. — When no intention is expressed, or where the action is absolutely past, this rule does not apply. We use the expressions, *I* say *that he* had *spoken*, and *I* say *that he* speaks, with equal correctness.

§ 369. *Number.* — Two or more nouns, each in the

singular number, connected by means of the conjunction *and*, require the verb to be in the plural number; as, *the father and son are* (not *is*) *at home.*

§ 370. Two or more nouns, each in the singular number, connected by means of a preposition, require the verb to be in the singular number; as, *the father, with the son, is* (not *are*) *at home.*

§ 371. Two or more nouns, each in the singular number, connected by means of the conjunction *or* or *nor*, require the verb to be in the singular number; as, *either the father or the son is coming ; neither the father nor the son is coming.*

§ 372. Collective substantives, although in the singular number, may agree with a verb in the plural number; as, *the multitude pursue pleasure.*

§ 373. In respect to substantives like *alms*, &c., the syntax has been noticed in § 126.

§ 374. *Construction of* it *with a Verb.* — *It*, followed by a verb substantive and a noun, requires the verb to be in the singular number, whatever may be the number of the noun; as, *it is* (not *are*) *we ; it is* (not *are*) *the men who never reason.* Here the verb agrees with *it*.

§ 375. *Construction of* there *with a Verb.* — *There*, followed by a verb substantive and a noun, requires the verb to be in the same number with the noun; as, *there are* (not *is*) *men that never reason.* Here the verb agrees with *men*.

§ 376. *Syntax of the Persons.* — A verb is always accompanied by either a substantive or a pronoun; as, *I seem, thou thinkest, he seems, she seems, it seems, we seem, ye seem, they seem, horses seem, men think, the horse seems, the man thinks, it seems to me.*

In several languages the pronoun is omitted, in which case the verb stands alone. If the English language followed in this respect the same principle as the Latin, we could say simply, *think* (for *I think*), *thinkest* (for *thou thinkest*), *thinketh* or *thinks* (for *he thinketh* or *thinks*). In this case there would be the omission of the pronoun.

§ 377. In three words in English this omission of the pronoun really takes place ; only, however, in the third person singular, and with the pronoun *it ;* as,

1. *Meseems.* This is equivalent to *it seems to me.*

2. *Methinks.* This also is equivalent to *it seems to me.* In this compound the word *thinks* is of a different origin from the word *think*, in expressions like *I think*, or *he thinks.* In Anglo-Saxon there were two forms, þencan = *to think*, and þincan = *to seem.* It is from the latter form that the word *methinks* originates.

3. *Me listeth*, or *me lists.* This is equivalent to *it pleases me.* In Anglo-Saxon *lystan* = *to wish, choose, please, delight.*

These three verbs are called Impersonal, because they can be used without a pronoun expressive of person.

§ 378. When a compound of the word *self* stands alone, it requires the verb to be in the third person ; as, *myself is* (not *am*) *weak, thyself is* (not *art*) *weak, myself speaks* (not *speak*), *thyself speaks* (not *speakest*). In this case the word *self* follows the construction of any other substantive, and we say, *myself is weak*, just as we would say, *my body is weak.* This rule is often violated, even by good writers ; as,

" I only know myself *am* weak." — POPE.

§ 379. When a compound of the word *self* is used with a pronoun of the first or second person, the verb agrees with that pronoun; as, *I myself am* (not *is*) *weak, thou thyself art* (not *is*) *weak.*

§ 380. *Syntax of the Verb* have *with the Past Participle.* — This occurs in phrases like *I have spoken, I have slept, I have moved, I have written;* where *have* is in the present tense, and where *spoken, slept, moved, written,* are past passive participles. The phrases, *I had spoken, I had moved,* &c., are in the same predicament, except that there *had* is in the past tense. *I had been moved, I shall have struck,* are modifications of the same construction, the phrase being somewhat more complex. Now, in all the phrases quoted above, the word *have* (or *had*) has the same power. It indicates past time. It indicates past time, even although it be itself in the present tense (*I have written*). As the natural meaning of the word *have* denotes *possession,* it may naturally be asked how it comes to mean *past time.* The difficulty that here arises becomes more visible if we substitute for the word *have* some word of similar meaning, such as *hold, possess,* or *own.* To say, *I own written a letter, I possess written a letter, I hold written a letter,* sounds like nonsense; at any rate, it gives no such meaning as is given by the words, *I have written a letter.* A little consideration, however, will show how the power of expressing *past time* may arise out of the idea of *possession.* In the first place, it is very evident that, in order for a person to possess an object, the object must be in existence. We cannot say that a man *has a written letter,* without also implying that *a letter has been written.*

Hence the idea expressed by the words, *I have a writ-ten letter*, or *I have a letter written*, is allied to the idea expressed by *I have written a letter*. If such be the origin of the phrase *I have written a letter*, five things ought to be the case : —

1st. That the word *written* should have no agree-ment with the pronoun governing the word ; e. g. in the phrase *I have written* it should have no connection with the word *I*, nor in the phrase *he has written* any reference to the pronoun *he*.

2d. That it should be connected with the substan-tive that follows ; e. g. *I have written a letter* should be equal to *I have a letter written*.

3d. That in respect to case it should agree with that substantive ; e. g. in the phrases, *I have slain a cow*, *I have struck a bull*, *I have slain men*, the word *slain* should be in the accusative case throughout, inasmuch as it is governed by the verb *have*.

4th. That in respect to number it should agree with the same substantive. In the phrases, *I have spurred a horse*, and *I have spurred horses*, the first *spurred* should be singular, the second *spurred* plural, in order to agree with the singular substantive *horse* on one hand, and with the plural substantive *horses* on the other hand.

5th. That in respect to gender it should agree with the same substantive.

Now, the participle joined to the verb *have* actu-ally comes under all these conditions, since it is an accusative case, taking the number and gender of the noun with which it agrees. At least such it was originally, and such we must now consider it, if we

wish to have the true history of the expression. This fact would have lain on the surface, and have been seen at once, if it were not for the deficiency of inflection in the English language. Just like the adjective *good* (*good boy, good girl ; good boys, good girls*), the participle *written* has the same form for all cases, genders, and numbers; and this conceals the fact of its following the case, gender, and number of the substantive with which it is connected. Add to this the circumstance that the participle has in the present English a peculiar position in the sentence. The following order, *I have a horse ridden*, or *I have a ridden horse*, connects the fact of a *horse having been ridden* with the idea of *possession*, as indicated by the word *have*, much more than the current phrase, which runs thus : *I have ridden a horse*. The proofs that the view above is the true one are as follows : —

1. In certain other languages we find other words besides *have*, expressive of possession, used for the sake of denoting past time ; e. g. in Spanish the word *tengo* = *I hold*, and in Old High German and Old Saxon the word *eigan* = *to own*. In these tongues, phrases like *I hold ridden, I own ridden*, = *I have ridden*, are actually existing.

2. In Old High German, Old Saxon, and Anglo-Saxon, we have the order of the participle and substantive occasionally reversed ; e. g., instead of saying, *I have forgotten it, I have chosen him, I have made one*, the phrases ran, *I have it forgotten* (i. e. *I possess it as a forgotten thing*), *I have him chosen* (i. e. *I possess him as a chosen person*), *I have one made* (i. e. *I have one as a made thing*).

3. That in languages where there is a sufficient amount of inflection to exhibit the participle as agreeing in case, number, and gender with the substantive to which it applies, such agreement is exhibited. In the Latin of the Middle Ages we find expressions like *literam scriptam habeo = I have, as a thing written, a letter*, or *I have written a letter*.

Respecting expressions like the one in question, there is yet one point to be explained. This concerns the gender.

In the two sentences, *I have ridden a horse* and *I have ridden a mare*, the word *ridden* is in the same gender, although *horse* is masculine and *mare* is feminine. Moreover, the word *ridden* is in the *neuter* gender, and, as such, equally different in gender from the two substantives *horse* and *mare*. This is the case not only with the sentences in question, but with all others like them. Whatever may be the gender of the substantive, the participle that follows the word *have* is always *neuter*.

Apparently this violates the statement made above, viz. that the participle agreed with the noun in case, number, and *gender*. In reality it does not violate it. All sentences like the one in question are elliptical, the word *thing* being understood ; so that *I have written a letter* is equivalent to *I possess a letter as a written thing ; I have ridden a horse* is equivalent to *I possess a horse as a ridden thing ; I have ridden a mare* is equivalent to *I possess a mare as a ridden thing.*

Hence it is not with the substantive that appears in the sentence, but with the substantive *thing* understood, that the participle agrees. As such, it is in the neuter gender.

§ 381. *Syntax of the Verb Substantive in the Present Tense with the Past Participle Passive.* — In propositions like *I am moved*, *he is beaten*, *we are struck*, *it is given*, the verb substantive is joined to the participle passive ; and so there arise phrases which have the power of a verb in the passive voice. It is well known that in some languages these ideas are expressed, not by the combination of the verb substantive and participle, but by a single word ; e. g. in Latin, *moveor* = *I am moved ; percutimur = we are struck; datur = it is given.* In the circumstance that the phrases above have the power of passive forms, there is nothing peculiar. Beyond this there is, however, a peculiarity. The participles *moved*, *beaten*, *struck*, *given*, are participles not of a present, but of a *past* tense ; and hence the proper meaning of the phrases given above (and of all others like them) should be very different from what it really is. *I am moved* should mean, not *I am in the act of being moved*, but *I am a person who has been moved ; he is beaten* should mean, not *he is a person who is in the act of suffering a beating*, but *he is one who has suffered a beating ;* in other words, the sense of the combination should be *past*, and not *present*. By a comparison between the English and Latin languages in respect to this combination of the verb substantive and participle, this anomaly on the part of the English becomes very apparent. The Latin word *motus* is exactly equivalent to the English word *moved*. Each is a participle of the passive voice and of the past tense. Besides this, *sum* in Latin equals *I am* in English. Now the Latin phrase *motus sum* is equivalent, not to the English combination *I am moved*, but to

the combination *I have been moved ;* i. e. it has a past,
and not a present sense. In Greek the difference is
plainer still, because in Greek there are two participles
passive, one for the present and another for the past
tense ; e. g. τυπτόμενός εἰμι (*typtomenos eimi*) = *I am
one in the act of undergoing a beating ;* τετυμμένος εἰμί
= *I am one who has undergone a beating.* The reason
for this confusion in English lies in the absence of a
passive form for the present. In Mœso-Gothic there
existed the forms *slahada* = *he (she* or *it) is beaten*
(*percutitur*, τύπτεται), and *slahanda* = *they are beaten*
(*percutiuntur*, τύπτονται) (*typtontai*). These were true
passive forms. In like manner there occurred *gibada*
= *he (she* or *it) is given* (*datur*), &c. Now, as long
as there was a proper form for the present, like those
in Mœso-Gothic, the combinations of the present tense
of the verb substantive with the participle past passive
had the same sense as in Latin and Greek ; that is, it
indicated past time ; e. g. *ga-bundan-s im* = *I have
been bound* (not *I* am *bound*), *gibans ist* = *he (she* or
it) has been given (not *is given*), &c. When the pas-
sive form, however, was lost, the combination took the
sense of a present tense.

SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS.

§ 382. Besides the adverbs, there is another class of
words that can enter into the construction of a proposi-
tion only when combined with other words. Take the
word *to* or *from*, and deal with it in the way that the
adverb *cheerfully* was dealt with.

We cannot make it the subject of a proposition. We
cannot say, *to is summer*, or *from is summer*.

Neither can we make it the predicate of a proposition. We cannot say, *summer is to*, or *summer is from*.

Nor yet can it become a copula. We cannot say, *summer to pleasant*, *summer from pleasant*.

Just as little can either *to* or *from* form copula and predicate at once. We cannot say, *summer to*, *summer from*, in the same way that we say, *summer cheers*.

In order to admit words like *to* or *from* into a proposition, we must combine them with other words.

Now words like *to* and *from* will not combine with the same parts of speech as words like *cheerfully* combine with.

1. They will not combine with adjectives. We cannot say, *summer is from pleasant*, *summer is to hot*.

2. They will not combine with participles. We cannot say, *he is hunting from*, *they are shooting to*.

3. They will not combine with verbs. We cannot say, *he comes from*, *he drinks to*.

The class of words with which words like *to* and *from* will combine are the substantives and pronouns. We can say, *he comes from London*, *he comes from the country*, *he drinks to me*, *she drinks to him*, &c.

§ 383. All words like *to* and *from* require a substantive or a pronoun to be combined with them.

§ 384. In most languages, where a word like *to* or *from* is combined with a substantive or pronoun, the word like *to* or *from* comes first, whilst the substantive or pronoun follows after; as, *he comes from London*, not *he comes London from*.

§ 385. Owing to the fact of words like *to* and *from*, when combined with a substantive or pronoun, coming,

in most languages, first, they are called Prepositions,
from the Latin words *præ* (*before*) and *positus* (*placed*),
or words *placed first.* In languages where they *fol-
low* the substantive or pronoun, the term preposition is
somewhat inapplicable.

§ 386. A preposition is a word that can enter into a
proposition only when combined with a substantive or
pronoun ; as,

> *John is going* to *London.*
> *James is coming* from *London.*

§ 387. The following words, along with several
others, are prepositions : *in, on, of, at, up, by, to, for,
from, till, with, through.*

§ 388. Every preposition governs a case ; that is,
every preposition is followed by a substantive or a pro-
noun in some case or other.

§ 389. In different languages different prepositions
govern different cases. In the present English they
govern the objective case exclusively ; as, *the son of the
father*, *he speaks to him.* We cannot say, *he speaks to
he* ; and if we say, *a son of the father's,* our meaning
is different from what it is when we say, *a son of the
father.*

§ 390. Several words are sometimes adverbs and
sometimes prepositions. They are adverbs when they
are destitute of case ; they are prepositions when they
govern a case.

Adverbs.	Prepositions.
Put it in ;	*Put it* in the box.
Get on ;	*Get* on the horse.
Go up ;	*Go* up the tree.
Pass by ;	*Pass* by the place
Cut through ;	*Cut* through the armor.

§ 391. Combinations of words are capable of being used as prepositions ; as, *up-on*, *round-about*, *a-cross*, *instead-of*, *be-tween*, *with-in*, *with-out*, &c.

§ 392. Certain prepositions, combined with substantives and pronouns, are equivalent in sense to cases. Between the expressions *the son of the father* and *the father's son* there is no great difference of meaning. This circumstance has induced many writers to call the combination *of a father* a possessive case.   This is erroneous.   The true view of the expression *of a father* is, that it is an objective case governed by a preposition, forming a combination equivalent (or nearly so) to the possessive case *father's*.

SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 393. The following sentences contain, each of them, *two* propositions, and between each of these two propositions it may be seen that there is a connecting word : *Rome is enslaved*, because *Cæsar is ambitious* ; *the sun shines*, and *the sky is clear* ; *the moon is intervening*, therefore *the sun is in eclipse* ; *it is not day*, but *it is night* ; *the town was taken*, although *a hero defended it.*

A word that connects two separate propositions is called a Conjunction ; [1] from the Latin word *conjungo* = *I join together.*

---

[1] This definition of a Conjunction is qualified in the next paragraph by the introduction of the word "almost."   In the third edition of the *English Language*, however, the same definition is repeated without qualification.   But in such sentences as *two and two make four*, *the sun and moon shine together*, the conjunction *and* indisputably connects two *words*, and not two *propositions*.

Almost every conjunction, although it appears to connect only separate *words*, really connects separate *propositions*. In sentences like *the sun and moon shine*, *the father and the son talk*, there is the appearance of being only a single proposition, so that all that is connected by means of the conjunction *and* appears to be the words *sun* and *moon*, *father* and *son*. This, however, is not the case in reality. The sentence *the sun and moon shine* contains in fact two separate propositions; one concerning the *sun* (namely, that it *shines*), the other concerning the *moon* (namely, that it *shines*). The same holds good with the sentence *the father and son talk*. One proposition states that *the father talks*; the other, that *the son talks*. The full expressions would be:

> *The sun shines* and *the moon shines ;*
> *The father talks* and *the son talks ;*

for these,

> *The sun* and *moon shine*,
> *The father* and *son talk*, ·

are only compendious forms.

§ 394. The same is the case with words where the conjunction *than* occurs; as,

> *This is sharper* than *that*.
> *I like you better* than *he*.
> *I like you better* than *him*.

Each of these sentences is elliptical. In full they would be:

> *This is sharper* than *that is sharp*.
> *I like you better* than *he likes you*.
> *I like you better* than *I like him*.

Here, as above, there are two propositions connected by the conjunction *than*.

§ 395. No conjunction ever governs a case. Certain apparent exceptions to this statement will be noticed in § 398.

§ 396. Words originally other parts of speech are sometimes used as conjunctions; as, *that*, *except*, *whether*, &c.

§ 397. Combinations of words are sometimes used as conjunctions; as, *not-with-standing*, *never-the-less*.

§ 398. In the following sentences, taken from good writers, the word *than* occurs followed by an objective case, and apparently violating § 395.

You are a much greater loser than me. — SWIFT.

She suffers more than me. — SWIFT.

A stone is weighty, and sand heavy, but a fool's wrath is heavier than them *both.* — OLD TESTAMENT.

Thou art a girl as much brighter than her,

As he was a poet sublimer than me. — PRIOR.

No one of these expressions is correct; or, if so, they are correct only under the idea that the word *than* is sometimes a conjunction (when it cannot govern a case), and sometimes a preposition (when it can govern a case).

§ 399. In what case the word following *than* ought to be, can always be determined by filling up the sentence. Thus, *thou art wiser than I* is equivalent to *thou art wiser than I am; you love him more than I*, to *you love him more than I love him; you love him more than me*, to *you love him more than you love me*.

The case of a noun following *than* is regulated, not by that word, but by the verb that would occur if the sentence were complete.

§ 400. The conjunction *that* is often omitted, even

by good writers; as, *I fear it comes too much from the heart* (ADDISON), for *I fear* that *it comes too much from the heart.*

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 401. The last class of words contains those that neither connect different propositions, nor yet form parts of separate ones. *Ah! oh! O! alas! pish! tush!* We use these words, but we use them without the idea of making any statement or assertion.

Words that neither form parts of a proposition, nor connect two different propositions, are called Interjections.

GOVERNMENT.

§ 402. Government is of three sorts.

1. Government of a noun by a noun; as, *the father's son.*

2. Government of a noun by a verb; as, *I strike him.*

3. Government of a noun by a preposition; as, *the father of the son; give this to him.*

§ 403. Sometimes the expression is incomplete, and the governing noun, the governing verb, or the governing preposition, is omitted or understood; as,

1. *This was bought at Rundle and Bridge's;* where the governing noun *shop* is omitted by ellipsis. See § 319.

2. *I like you better than him;* where the full expression would be, *I like you better than I like him*, so that the verb *like*, governing *him*, is understood.

§ 404. But besides expressions like the ones just mentioned, there are others where there is neither gov-

ernment by means of a noun, verb, or preposition, nor yet any ellipsis or omission. In this case the noun is said to stand *absolutely*.

§ 405. Nouns standing absolutely are of two sorts: 1. Those originating in an Accusative case. 2. Those originating in a Dative case.

§ 406. In expressing *distance* or *duration*, either in *time* or *space*, we use the noun absolutely; as, *he walked* ten miles (i. e. *the space of ten miles*); *he stood* three hours (i. e. *the space of three hours*). Here the words *stood* and *walk* are intransitive; so that it is not by them that the words *miles* and *hours* are governed. They stand absolutely. Although not distinguished in form from the nominative case, these words are not nominatives. They are naturally accusatives; and when, in an older stage of the Gothic languages, the accusative was distinguished from the nominative, they appeared in the form of the accusative.

§ 407. The door being open, *the steed was stolen;* the sun having arisen, *the laborers proceeded to work.* In these sentences the words *door* and *sun* stand absolutely; and as the words *being open* and *having arisen* agree with them, they also do the same. In English *substantives*, where there is no distinction between the nominative and the objective cases, it is of no practical importance to inquire as to the particular case in which the words like *door* and *sun* stand.

§ 408. In the English *pronouns*, where there *is* a distinction between the nominative and objective cases, it *is* of practical importance to inquire in what particular case words like *door* and *sun* stand.

1. *He made the best proverbs of any one*, him *only excepted*.

2. *He made the best proverbs of any one*, he *only excepted*.

Which of these two expressions is correct? This we can decide only by determining in what case nouns standing absolutely, in the way that *door*, *sun*, and *him* (or *he*) now stand, were found in that stage of our language when the Nominative and Objective cases were distinguished by separate forms.

In Anglo-Saxon this case was the *Dative ;* as, *up-a-sprungenre sunnan = the sun having arisen*.

In Anglo-Saxon, also, *him* was a dative case, so that the case out of which expressions like the ones in question originated was dative. Hence, of the two phrases *him excepted* and *he excepted*, the former is the one which is *historically* correct.

It is also the form which is *logically* correct. Almost all absolute expressions of this kind have a reference, more or less direct, to the *cause* of the action denoted. In sentences like *the stable-door being open, the horse was stolen ; the sun having arisen, the laborers got up to work;* this idea of either a cause, or a coincidence like a cause, is pretty clear.

In the sentence, *he made the best proverbs of any one, him only excepted*, the idea of cause is less plain. Still it exists. The existence of *him* (i. e. the particular person mentioned as preëminent in proverb-making) is the cause or reason why *he* (i. e. the person spoken of as the second-best proverb-maker) was not the very best of proverb-makers.

Now in languages which have only these four cases, Nominative, Possessive, Objective, and Dative, and consequently no peculiar form to express cause or agency, the Dative supplies the place of such a case. Hence the Anglo-Saxon Dative Absolute.

In spite, however, both of history and logic, the so-called best authorities are in favor of the use of the Nominative case in the absolute construction.

Obs. — In all absolute constructions of the kind in question, one of the words is either a Substantive or a Pronoun, the other a *Participle*. The reason of this is in the fact of all such absolute constructions indicating either an *action* or a *state*.

PART V.

PROSODY.

§ 409. THE word *Prosody* is derived from a Greek word (*Prosodia*) signifying *accent*. It is used by Latin and English grammarians in a wider sense, and includes not only the doctrines of accent and quantity, but also the laws of metre and versification.

§ 410. Take the sentence last written, count the syllables, and mark those that are accented. — The wórd Prósody is deríved from a Greék wórd sígnifying áccent It ıs úsed by Látin and E'nglish grammárians ín a wíder sénse, and inclúdes not ónly the dóctrines of áccent and quántity, but álso the láws of métre and versificátion. — Here the accented syllables are the 2d, 3d, 8th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 17th, 21st, 23d, 26th, 29th, &c. ; that is, between two accented syllables there are sometimes three, sometimes two, and sometimes no unaccented syllables intervening. In other words, there is no regularity in the recurrence of the accent.

§ 411. Proceed in the same way with the following stanza, numbering each syllable, and observing upon which the accent occurs.

> Then fáre thee wéll, mine ówn dear lóve,
> The wórld hath nów for ús
> No greáter grief, no pain abóve
> The paín of párting thús. — MOORE.

Here the syllables accented are the 2d, 4th, 6th, 8th, 10th, 12th, 14th, 16th, 18th, 20th, 22d, 24th, 26th, and 28th; that is, every other syllable. Again,

> At the clóse of the dáy, when the hámlet is stíll,
>> And the mórtals the sweéts of forgétfulness próve,
> And when naúght but the tórrent is heárd on the híll,
>> And there's naúght but the níghtingale's sóng in the gróve·
>>>> BEATTIE.

Here the syllables accented are the 3d, 6th, 9th, 12th, 15th, 18th, 21st, 24th, 27th, 30th, 33d, 36th, 39th, 42d, 45th, and 48th; that is, every third syllable.

§ 412. Now the sentence in which there was no regularity in the recurrence of the accent was prose; and the extracts in which the accent recurred at regular intervals formed metre. *Metre is the general term for the recurrence within certain intervals of syllables similarly affected.* The syllables that have just been numbered are similarly affected, being similarly accented. Accent is not the only quality of a syllable, which, by returning at regular intervals, can constitute metre. It is the one, however, upon which English metre depends. English metre essentially consists in the regular recurrence of syllables similarly accented.

> *Abbot.* — And whý not líve and áct with óther men?
> *Manfred.* — Becaúse my náture wás avérse from lífe;
> And yét not crúel, fór I woúld not máke,
> But find a désolátion: — like the wínd,
> The réd-hot breáth of the most lóne simoóm,
> Which dwélls but ín the desert, ánd sweeps ó'er
> The bárren sánds which beár no shrúbs to blást,
> And révels ó'er their wíld and árid wáves,
> And seéketh nót so thát it ís not soúght,
> But béing mét is deádly: súch hath beén
> The páth of mý exístence. — BYRON.

§ 413. *Measures.* — For every accented syllable in the following line write the letter *a*, and for every un-accented one the letter *x*, so that *a* may stand for an accent, *x* for the absence of one :

<div style="text-align:center">The wáy was lóng, the wínd was cóld. — SCOTT.</div>

Or expressed symbolically,

<div style="text-align:center">*x a x a x a x a,*</div>

where *x* coincides with *the*, *a* with *way*, &c.

§ 414. Determine the length of the line in question. It is plain that this may be done in two ways. We may either measure by the syllables, and say that the lines consists of eight syllables ; or by the accents, and say that it consists of four accents. In this latter case we take the accented syllable with its corresponding unaccented one, and, grouping the two together, deal with the pair at once. Now a group of syllables thus taken together is called a *measure.* In the line in question *the way* (*x a*) is one measure, *was long* (*x a*) another, and so on throughout ; the line itself consisting of four measures.

<div style="text-align:center">

The wár, that fór a spáce did fail,
Now trébly thúndered ón the gále,
   And Stánley wás the crý ;
A líght on Mármion's vísage shéd,
   And fíred his glázing eye :
With dýing hánd, abóve his heád
He shoók the frágments óf his bláde,
   And shoúted víctory ! — SCOTT.

</div>

§ 415. It is very evident that there must be different sorts of measures. In lines like the following, the measure is the reverse of the preceding one. The ac-cented syllable comes first, the unaccented one follows ; the formula being *a x.*

Láy thy bów of peárl apárt,
　A'nd thy sílver shíning quíver;
Gíve untó the flýing hárt
　Tíme to breáthe, how shórt soéver;
Thoú that mák'st a dáy of níght,
Góddess éxquisitely bríght. — BEN JONSON.

§ 416. *Trisyllabic Measures.* — The number of measures consisting of two syllables, or dissyllabic measures, is necessarily limited to two, expressed by *a x* and *x a* respectively. But beyond these there are in the English language measures of three syllables, or trisyllabic measures. The number of these is necessarily limited to three.

The first of these is exhibited in the word *mérrily* (*a x x*).

Mérrily, mérrily sháll I live nów,
U'nder the blóssom that hángs on the boúgh. — SHAKSPEARE.

§ 417. The second is exhibited by the word *disáble* (*x a x*).

But vaínly thou wárrest,
　For thís is alóne in
Thy pówer to decláre,
That ín the dim fórest
　Thou heárd'st a low moáning,
And sáw'st a bright lády surpássingly faír.

COLERIDGE.

§ 418. The third is exhibited by the word *cavaliér* (*x x a*).

There's a beaúty for éver unfádingly bríght,
Like the lóng ruddy lápse of a súmmer-day's níght. — MOORE.

§ 419. When grouped together according to certain rules, measures form lines and verses; and lines and verses, regularly arranged, constitute couplets, triplets,

and stanzas, &c. Before we speak of these, it will be necessary to exhibit the nature of rhyme.

§ 420. *Rhyme.* — In the forthcoming quotation each pair of lines is called a Couplet. Observe in each couplet the last syllable of each line. These are said to *rhyme* to each other.

> O'er the glad waters of the dark blue *sea,*
> Our thoughts as boundless, and our souls as *free,*
> Far as the breeze can bear the billow's *foam,*
> Survey our empire and behold our *home.*
> These are our realms, no limits to our *sway,*—
> Our flag the sceptre all who meet *obey.*

The next extract is a stanza of Gray's " Elegy," where, instead of following one another in succession, the rhyming lines come alternately.

> Full many a gem of purest ray *serene*
> The dark, unfathomed depths of ocean *bear ;*
> Full many a flower is born to blush un*seen,*
> And waste its sweetness on the desert *air.*— GRAY.

In other stanzas the rhyming lines are sometimes continuous (or in succession), and sometimes separated from each other by an interval.

> And yet how lovely in thine age of *woe,*
>   Land of lost gods and godlike men, art *thou !*
> Thy vales of evergreen, thy hills of *snow,*
>   Proclaim thee Nature's varied favorite *now.*
> Thy fanes, thy temples, to thy surface *bow,*
>   Commingling slowly with heroic *earth,*
> Broke by the share of every rustic *plough :*
>   So perish monuments of mortal *birth,*
> So perish all in turn, save well-recorded *worth.*— BYRON.

§ 421. It is not difficult to see, in a general way, in what rhyme consists. The syllables *sea* and *free,* *foam* and *home,* &c., are syllables of similar sound ;

and lines that end in syllables of similar sound are lines that rhyme.

By substituting in a line or stanza, instead of the final syllable, some word different in sound, although similarly accented, and equally capable of making sense, we may arrive at a general view of the nature and influence of rhyme as an ornament of metre. In the following stanza we may spoil the effect by substituting the word *glen* for *vale*, and *light* for *ray*.

> Turn, gentle hermit of the vale,
>   And guide thy lonely way
> To where yon taper cheers the dale
>   With hospitable ray. — GOLDSMITH.
>
> Turn, gentle hermit of the glen,
>   And guide thy lonely way
> To where yon taper cheers the dale
>   With hospitable light.

§ 422. The definition of the word *rhyme* must be made closer ; — syllables may be similar in their sound, and yet fail in furnishing full, true, and perfect rhymes. In each of the forthcoming couplets there is evidently a similarity of sound, and there is equally evidently an imperfection in the rhyme.

I.

> The soft-flowing outline that steals from the eye,
> Who threw o'er the surface, — did you or did I?
>   WHITEHEAD.

II.

> 'T is with our judgments as our watches; none
> Go just alike, yet each believes his own. — POPE.

III.

> Soft o'er the shrouds aerial whispers breathe,
> That seemed but zephyrs to the train beneath. — POPE.

The first of these three pairs of verses was altered into

> The soft-flowing outline that steals from the view,
> Who threw o'er the surface, — did I or did you?

and that solely on account of the imperfectness of the original endings, *eye* and *I.*

These are samples of what passes for a rhyme without being one. A true rhyme will be better understood after the analysis of a rhyming syllable.

§ 423. *Analysis of a Pair of Rhyming Syllables.* — Let the syllables *told* and *bold* be taken to pieces, and let the separate parts of each be compared. Viewed in reference to metre, they consist of three parts, or elements : 1. the vowel (*o*) ; 2. the part *preceding* the vowel (*t* and *b* respectively) ; 3. the parts *following* the vowel (*ld*). Now the vowel (*o*) and the parts following the vowel (*ld*) are alike in both words (*old*) ; but the part preceding the vowel is different in the different words (*told*, *bold*). This difference between the parts preceding the vowel is essential ; since, if it were not for this, the two words would be identical, or rather there would be but one word. This is the case with *I* and *eye.* Sound for sound (although different in spelling), the two words are identical, and consequently the rhyme is faulty.

Again : compared with the words *bold* and *told*, the words *teeth* and *breeze* have two of the elements necessary to constitute a rhyme. The vowels are alike (*ee*), whilst the parts preceding the vowels are different (*br* and *t*) ; and, as far as these two matters are concerned, the rhyme is a good one, *tee* and *bree*. Notwithstanding this, there is by no means a rhyme ;

since the parts following the vowel (*th* and *ze*), instead of agreeing, differ. *Breathe* and *beneath* are in the same predicament, because the *th* is not sounded alike in the two words.

Again: the words *feel* and *mill* constitute only a false and imperfect rhyme. Sound for sound, the letters *f* and *m* (the parts preceding the vowel) are different. This is as it should be. Also, sound for sound, *l* and *ll* (the parts following the vowel) are identical; and this is as it should be also. But *ee* and *i* (the vowels) are different, and this difference spoils the rhyme. *None* and *own* are in the same predicament; since one *o* is sounded as *o* in *note*, and the other as the *u* in *but*.

From what has gone before we get the notion of true and perfect rhymes as opposed to false and imperfect ones. For two (or more) words to rhyme to each other, it is necessary,

1. That the vowel be the same in both.

2. That the parts following the vowel be the same.

3. That the parts preceding the vowel be different.

Beyond this it is necessary that the syllables, to form a full and perfect rhyme, should be accented syllables. *Sky* and *lie* form good rhymes, but *sky* and merri*ly* bad ones, and *merrily* and *silly* worse. Lines like the second and fourth of the following stanza are slightly exceptionable on this score; indeed, many readers sacrifice the accent in the word *mérrily* to the rhyme, and pronounce it *merrilý*.

> The witch she héld the haír in her hánd,
>   The réd flame blázed high;
> And roúnd aboút the cáldron stoút,
>   They dánced right mérri*lý.* — KIRKE WHITE.

§ 424. *Varieties of Imperfect Rhymes.* — *None* and *own* are nearer to rhymes than *none* and *man ;* because there are degrees in the amount to which vowels differ from one another ; and the sounds of the *o* in *none* and the *o* in *own* are more alike than the sounds of the *o* in *none* and the *a* in *man*. In like manner *breathe* and *teeth* are nearer to rhymes than *breathe* and *teaze ;* and *breathe* and *teaze* are more alike in sound than *breathe* and *teal :* this is because the sound of *th* in *teeth* is more allied to that of *th* in *breathe* than to that of *z* in *teaze*, and to the *z* in *teaze* more than to the *l* in *teal*. This shows that in imperfect rhymes there are degrees, and that some approach the nature of true ones more than others.

§ 425. In matters of rhyme the letter *h* counts as nothing. *High* and *I*, *hair* and *air*, are imperfect rhymes ; because *h* (being no articulate sound) counts as nothing, and so the parts before the vowel *i* and *a* are not different (as they ought to be), but identical.

> Whose generous children narrowed not their hearts
> With commerce, given alone to arms and arts. — Byron.

§ 426. Words where the letters coincide, but the sounds differ, are only rhymes to the eye. *Breathe* and *beneath* are in this predicament ; so also are *cease* and *ease* (*eaze*).

> In the fat age of pleasure, wealth, and ease,
> Sprang the rank weed, and thrived with large increase.
>
> Pope.

§ 427. If the sounds coincide, the difference of the letters is unimportant.

Bold in the practice of mistaken rules,
Prescribe, apply, and call their masters fools. — Pope.

They talk of principles, but notions prize,
And all to one loved folly sacrifice.

§ 428. *Single Rhymes.* — An accented syllable stand-
ing by itself, and coming under the conditions given
above, constitutes a single rhyme.

'T is hard to say if greater want of *skill*
Appear in writing or in judging *ill;*
But, of the two, less dangerous is the of*fence*
To tire the patience than mislead the *sense.*
Some few in that, but thousands err in *this;*
Ten censure wrong, for one that writes a*miss.* — Pope.

§ 429. *Double Rhymes.* — An accented syllable fol-
lowed by an unaccented one, and coming under the
conditions given above, constitutes a double rhyme.

The meeting points the sacred hair dis*sever*
From her fair head for ever and for *ever.* — Pope.

Prove and explain a thing till all men *doubt it,*
And write about it, Goddess, and a*bout it.* — Pope.

§ 430. An accented syllable followed by two unac-
cented ones, and coming under the conditions given
above, constitutes a treble rhyme.

Beware that its fatal asc*éndency*
Do not tempt thee to mope and repine;
With a humble and hopeful dep*éndency*
Still await the good pleasure divine.
Success in a higher be*átitude*
Is the end of what 's under the Pole;
A philosopher takes it with *grátitude,*
And believes it the best on the whole. — Byron.

§ 431. Accent is essential to English metre. Rhyme, on the other hand, is only an ornament. Of all the ornaments of English versification it is undoubtedly the most important. Still it is not essential. Metres where there is no rhyme are called Blank Metres.

> Of man's first disobedience and the fruit
> Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
> Brought death into the world and all our woe,
> With loss of Eden, till one greater Man   .
> Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
> Sing, Heavenly Muse ! — MILTON.

> The quality of mercy is not strained.
> It droppeth as the gentle dew from heaven
> Upon the place beneath ; it is twice blessed,
> It blesseth him that gives, and him that takes;
> 'T is mightiest of the mighty, it becomes
> The throned monarch better than his crown.
> His sceptre shows the force of temporal power,
> The attribute of awe and majesty,
> Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings :
> But mercy is above this sceptred sway ;
> It is enthroned in the hearts of kings :
> It is an attribute to God himself;
> And earthly power doth then show likest God's,
> When mercy seasons justice. — SHAKESPEARE.

§ 432. *Classification of the English Measures.* — If we lay out of our calculations the measures consisting of a single syllable, on the one hand, and those consisting of four syllables, on the other, the number of the English measures is five. Two of these are dissyllabic, and three trisyllabic. The dissyllabic ones come first in order. Of these the one where the accented syllable precedes the unaccented one naturally stands first. The same takes place with the trisyllabic meas-

ures. It is very fortunate that our measures are thus capable of being classed naturally; since, by so classing them, we can number them according to their place in the arrangement, and, in speaking of them, say the first measure, the second measure, the third measure, and so on. This is necessary, since there is no convenient and unexceptionable name for each separate measure. The order, then, of the English measures is as follows : —

1. *a x.* — *týrant, sílly,* } Dissyllabic.
2. *x a.* — *presúme, déter,* }

3. *a x x.* — *mérrily, fórtify,*)
4. *x a x.* — *disáble, preférring,* } Trisyllabic.
5. *x x a.* — *refugée, cavaliér,*)

§ 433. *The last Measure in a Line or Verse is indifferent as to its Length.* — By referring to the section upon single rhymes, we shall find that the number of syllables is just double the number of accents; that is, to each accented there is one unaccented syllable, and no more. Hence, with five accents, there are to each line ten syllables. This is not the case with the lines in § 429. There the rhymes are double, and the last accented syllable has two unaccented ones to follow it. Hence, with five accents there are to each line eleven syllables. Now it is in the last measure that this supernumerary unaccented syllable appears; and it is a general rule that, in the last measure of any verse, supernumerary unaccented syllables can be admitted without destroying the original character of the measure. Hence it is that, up to a certain point, we may say that the length of the concluding measure of a line or verse is a matter of indifference.

Now in the verses in § 429 the original character of the measure is *x a* throughout, until we get to the words *disséver* and *for éver*, and afterwards to *men doúbt it* and *aboút it*. At the first view it seems proper to say that in these last-mentioned cases *x a* is converted into *x a x*. A different view, however, is the more correct one. *Disséver* and *for éver* are rather *x a* with a syllable over. This extra syllable may be expressed by the sign *plus* (+), so that the words in point may be expressed by *x a* +, rather than by *x a x*. It is very clear that a measure whereof the last syllable is accented (that is, measures like *x a, presúme*, or *x x a, cavalíer*) can only vary from its original character on the side of excess ; that is, they can only be altered by the addition of fresh syllables. To subtract a syllable from such feet is impossible ; since it is only the last syllable that is capable of being subtracted. If that last syllable, however, be the accented syllable of the measure, the whole measure is annihilated. Nothing remains but the unaccented syllable preceding ; and this, as no measure can subsist without an accent, must be counted as a supernumerary part of the preceding measure.

§ 434. With the measures *a x, a x x, x a x*, the case is different. Here there is room for a syllable or syllables to be subtracted.

> Queén and húntress, cháste and faír,
>   Nów the sún is laíd to sleep,
> Seáted ín thy sílver chaír,
>   Státe in wónted spléndor keép.
> Hésperús invókes thy líght,
> Góddess, éxquisítely bríght. — BEN JONSON.

In all these lines the last measure is deficient in a syllable; yet the deficiency is allowable, because each measure is the last one of the line. The formula for expressing *fair*, *sleep*, *chair*, &c., is not a, but rather $a\ x$ followed by the *minus* sign (—), or $a\ x$ —.

A little consideration will show that, amongst the English measures, $x\ a$ and $x\ x\ a$ naturally form single, $a\ x$ and $x\ a\ x$ double, and $a\ x\ x$ treble rhymes.

§ 435. *Metrical Notation.* — The lines in § 428 consist each of five measures, each measure being $x\ a$ This we may express thus : —

$$x\ a\ \ x\ a\ \ x\ a\ \ x\ a\ \ x\ a$$

The presence of a supernumerary syllable may be denoted by the sign $+$. The lines in § 429 will now run,

$$x\ a\ \ x\ a\ \ x\ a\ \ x\ a\ \ x\ a +.$$

On the other hand, the sign — indicates the absence of a syllable; so that the line,

Queén and húntress cháste and faír,

runs,

$$a\ x\ \ a\ x\ \ a\ x\ \ a\ x —.$$

These forms may be rendered more compendious by the introduction of the arithmetical sign $\times$, signifying multiplication, by means of which we may write, instead of

$$a\ x\ \ a\ x\ \ a\ x\ \ a\ x —,$$

a shorter form, or

$$a\ x \times 4 —.$$

If it be asked to what purpose this symbolical notation is introduced, the answer is, that neither our measure nor our verses have sufficiently unexceptionable denominations. With this method of notation we can

14

proceed to the examination of lines (or verses) and stanzas.

§ 436. *Verses formed by the First Measure, or* a x. — 1. A verse so short as to consist of a single accented syllable can be conceived to exist. Its formula would be *a x*—. I know of no actual specimens. The next in point of brevity would be *a x*. This also is either non-existent, or too rare to be of practical importance.

2. Verses of Two Measures. Formula *a x* × 2.

> Rích the treásure,
> Sweét the pleásure. — DRYDEN.

Verses of Formula *a x* × 2 —.

> Túmult ceáse,
> Sink to peáce.

3. Three Measures. Formula *a x* × 3.

> E'very dróp we sprínkle
> Smoóthes awáy a wrínkle.

Formula *a x* × 3 —.

> Fill the búmper fair —
> O'n the brów of cáre.

The two varieties of this formula, rhyming alternately, constitute the following stanza.

> Fill the búmper faír;
>   E'very dróp we sprínkle
> O'n the brów of cáre
>   Smoóthes awáy a wrínkle.
> Ságes cán, they sáy,
>   Seíze the líghtning's pínion,
> A'nd bring dówn its ráy
>   Fróm the stárred domínion. — MOORE.

4. Four measures.   Formula $a\,x \times 4$.

> Thén her coúntenánce all óver —
> Bút he clásped her líke a lóver.

Formula $a\,x \times 4$ —.

> Pále agaín as deáth did próve —
> A'nd he cheéred her soúl with lóve.

These two varieties alternating, and with rhyme, constitute one of the commonest metres of which $a\,x$ is the basis.

> Thén her coúntenánce all óver
>   Pále agaín as deáth did próve ;
> Bút he clásped her líke a lóver,
>   A'nd he cheéred her soúl with lóve.
> Só she stróve agaínst her weákness,
>   Thoúgh at tímes her spírits sánk ;
> Sháped her heárt with wóman's meékness
>   Tó all dúties óf her ránk.
> A'nd a géntle cónsort máde he ;
>   A'nd her géntle mínd was súch,
> Thát she gréw a nóble lády,
>   A'nd the peóple lóved her múch.
> Bút a troúble weíghed upón her,
>   A'nd perpléxed her níght and mórn
> Wíth the búrden óf an hónor
>   U'nto whích she wás not bórn. — TENNYSON.

5. Five measures.   Formula $a\,x \times 5$.

> Nárrowing ín to whére they sát assémbled,
> Lów, volúptuous músic wínding trémbled.

Formula $a\,x \times 5$ —.

> Thén methoúght I heárd a hóllow soúnd,
> Gáthering úp from áll the lówer groúnd.

The two varieties mixed : —

> Then methought I heard a hollow sound,
> Gathering up from all the lower ground.
> Narrowing in to where they sat assembled,
> Low, voluptuous music winding trembled,
> Woven in circles : they that heard it sighed,
>   Panted, hand in hand, with faces pale,
> Swung themselves, and in low tones replied
> Till the fountain spouted, showering wide
>   Sleet of diamond-drift and pearly hail :
> Then the music touched the gates and died.
>
> <div align="right">TENNYSON.</div>

6. Six measures.   Formula $a\,x \times 6$, or $a\,x \times 6$ —.

O'n a moúntain, strétched beneáth a hoáry wíllow,
Láy a shépherd swaín, and viéwed the rólling bíllow.

7. Seven measures.   Formula $a\,x \times 7$, or $a\,x \times 7$ —.

Wé have hád enoúgh of áction ánd of mótion ; we —
Lét us sweár an oáth, and keép it, wíth an équal mínd.

8. Eight measures.   Formula $a\,x \times 8$, or $a\,x \times 8$ —.

Cómrades, leáve me hére a líttle, whíle as yét 't is eárly morn:
Leáve me hére; and, whén you wánt me, soúnd upón the búgle-
    hórn.

Lines of this formula occur sometimes unmixed, and constituting whole poems ; as,

Here about the beach I wandered, nourishing a youth sublime
With the fairy tales of science, and the long results of Time;
When the centuries behind me, like a fruitful land reposed ;
When I clung to all the Present for the promise that it closed;
When I dipped into the Future, far as human eye could see,
Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be. —
In the spring a fuller crimson comes upon the robin's breast;
In the spring the wanton lapwing gets himself another crest;

In the spring a livelier iris changes on the burnished dove;
In the spring a young man's fancy lightly turns to thoughts of love.
Then her cheek was pale and thinner than should be for one so
      young,
And her eyes on all my motions with a mute observance hung.
And I said, "My cousin Amy, speak, and speak the truth to me;
Trust me, cousin, all the current of my being sets to thee."
                                  TENNYSON (*Lockesley Hall*).

Sometimes mixed with other measures (as with lines of formula $a\,x \times 7$) : —

We have had enough of action and of motion; we
Rolled to larboard, rolled to starboard, when the surge was seeth-
      ing free,
Where the wallowing monster spouted his foam-fountains in the sea.
Let us swear an oath, and keep it with an equal mind,
In the hollow lotos-land to live and lie reclined
On the hills, like gods together, careless of mankind:
For they lie beside their nectar, and their bolts are hurled
Far below them in the valleys, and the clouds are lightly curled
Round their golden houses, girdled with the gleaming world;
Where they smile in secret, looking over wasted lands,
Blight and famine, plague and earthquake, roaring deeps and
      fiery sands,
Clanging fights, and flaming towns, and sinking ships, and pray-
      ing hands. —
Surely, surely, slumber is more sweet than toil; the shore,
Than labor in the deep mid-ocean, wind, and wave, and oar.
O, rest ye, brother mariners, we will not wander more!
                             TENNYSON (*The Lotos Eaters*).

Lines based upon $a\,x$ are rarely without rhyme; in other words, they rarely constitute blank verse. The accent lies on the odd syllables.

§ 437. *Verses Formed by the Second Measure, or* $x\,a$. — 1. Lines so short as to be reducible to $x\,a$ are of too rare an occurrence to demand special notice.

Formula $x\ a\ +$.

> Thou Béing
> All-seéing,
> O, hear my fervent prayer;
> Still táke her,
> And máke her
> Thy most peculiar care. — BURNS.

Generally two lines of this formula are arranged as single verses. Such is the case with those just quoted, that are printed,

> Thou Being all-seeing,
> O, hear my fervent prayer;
> Still take her, and make her
> Thy most peculiar care.

2. Two measures. Formula $x\ a\ \times\ 2$.

> Unheárd, unknówn,
> He mákes his moán —
> What sounds were heard!
> What scenes appeared —
> The strains decay,
> And melt away. — POPE.

Formula $x\ a\ \times\ 2\ +$.

> Upón a moúntain,
> Besíde a foúntain.

3. Three measures. Formula $x\ a\ \times\ 3$.

> With hóllow blásts of wínd —
> All ón a róck reclíned.

Formula $x\ a\ \times\ 3\ +$.

> 'T was whén the seás were roáring —
> A dámsel láy deplóring.

The alternation of the two varieties of $x\,a \times 3$ constitutes what may be called Gay's stanza.

> 'T was when the seas were roaring
>   With hollow blasts of wind,
> A damsel lay deploring,
>   All on a rock reclined.
> Wide o'er the foaming billows
>   She cast a wistful look;
> Her head was crowned with willows,
>   That trembled o'er the brook. — GAY.
>
> Cold sweat is plashing o'er them,
>   Their breasts are beating slow:
> The sands and shelves before them
>   Flash fire at every blow.
> Their fellows stand in fear of
>   The upshot of the fray;
> The child unborn shall hear of
>   The wrestling of that day.

4. Four measures.   Formula $x\,a \times 4$.

> On, on he hastened, and he drew
> My gaze of wonder as he flew.
> Though like a demon of the night
> He passed and vanished from my sight,
> His aspect and his air imprest
> A troubled memory on my breast;
> And long upon my startled ear
> Rung his dark courser's hoofs of fear. — BYRON.

5. Five measures.   Formula $x\,a \times 5$.

> Fond fool! six feet of earth is all thy store,
> And he that seeks for all shall have no more. — HALL.

Formula $x\,a \times 5 +$.

> The meeting points the sacred hair dissever
> From her fair head for ever and for ever. — POPE.

§ 438. As this last is the standard metre in the English language, it may serve as a basis for the study of the rest. In point of time it is one of our earliest forms of verse. It was written by Chaucer in the fourteenth century, is written by the poets of the present generation, and has been used by most writers of the intermediate period. Its chief cultivators have been Chaucer, Dryden, Pope, Cowper, and Byron, in rhyme; and Milton and the dramatists in blank verse. In character it has every variety. For serious poetry (except in the drama) it is considered that the admission of an extra syllable at the end of the line (i. e. formula $x\ a \times 5\ +$) is exceptionable. Whenever it occurs in Milton it is found fault with by Johnson; and the same author asserts that, with one exception, it always appears disadvantageously in Pope. In the drama, where the language of common life is more especially imitated, the formula $x\ a \times 5\ +$ is not only admissible, but necessary.

The general term for metres of the form in question is Heroic. The first division into which the heroic metres fall is into, 1. Blank heroics, 2. Rhyming heroics.

§ 439. *Blank Heroics.* — Blank heroics, or blank verse, as it is generally called, falls into two varieties, determined by the nature of the subject-matter : 1. Dramatic blank verse ; 2. Narrative blank verse.

§ 440. *Dramatic Blank Verse.* — With the exception of the earliest dramas in the language, and some rhyming tragedies written in imitation of the French about the time of Charles the Second, the writings for the English stage consist chiefly of either prose or blank verse. It is in blank verse that most tragedies and many com-

edies are either wholly or partially written. Dramatic
blank verse not only admits, but calls for, the formula
$x \, a \times 5 \, +$. Often there are two supernumerary syl-
lables. In rhyming metres these would constitute
double rhymes.

OTHELLO'S SPEECH BEFORE THE SENATORS.

Most potent, grave, and reverend seigniors,
My very noble and approved good *masters*,
That I have ta'en away this old man's *daughter*,
It is most true: true, I have married her:
The very head and front of my off*ending*
Hath this extent, no more. Rude I'm in speech
And little blessed with the set phrase of peace,
For since these arms of mine had seven years' pith
Till now, some nine moons wasted, they have used
Their dearest action in the tented field,
And little of this great world can I speak,
More than pertains to feats of broil and *battle;*
And therefore little shall I grace my cause
In speaking of myself: yet by your *patience*
I will a round, unvarnished tale deliver
Of my whole course of love; what drugs, what **charms**,
What conjuration, and what mighty *magic*,
(For such proceedings am I charged withal,)
I won his daughter. — SHAKESPEARE.

Narrative Blank Verse. — The metre of " Paradise
Lost," "Paradise Regained," Young's "Night Thoughts,"
Cowper's " Task," Cowper's " Homer," &c.

Nine times the space that measures day and night
To mortal men, he, with his horrid crew,
Lay vanquished, rolling in the fiery gulf
Confounded, though immortal: but his doom
Preserved him to more wrath, for now the thought
Both of lost happiness and lasting pain
Torments him.

Here the admission of a supernumerary final sylla-
ble is rare.   Lines of *eleven* syllables, like the follow-
ing, are uncommon.

> Of sovran power with awful ceremony.
> > *Paradise Lost*, Book I.

Rhyming Heroics. — For further notice of this class
of metres, see § 444. 6.

6. Six measures.   Formulas $x\,a \times 6$, and $x\,a \times 6 +$.

He lífted úp his hánd that báck agaín did stárt. — SPENSER.

> Ye sácred bárds that tó | your hárps' melódious stríngs
> Sung th' áncient héroes' deéds, | the mónuménts of kíngs ;
> If, ás those Drúids taúght | who képt the Brítish rítes,
> And dwélt in dárksome gróves, | there coúnselling with sprítes,
> When thése our soúls by deáth | our bódies dó forsáke,
> They ínstantly agaín | to óther bódies táke,
> I coúld have wíshed your soúls | redoúbled ín my breást,
> To gíve my vérse applaúse | to tíme's etérnal rést. — DRAYTON.

7. Seven measures.   Formulas $x\,a \times 7$, and $x\,a \times 7 +$.

> But one request I make to Him | that sits the skies above,
> That I were freely out of debt | as I were out of love ;
> O, then to dance and sing and play | I should be very willing,
> I 'd never owe a maid a kiss, | and ne'er a knave a shilling.
> > SUCKLING.

8. Eight measures.   Formulas $x\,a \times 8$, and $x\,a \times 8 +$.

> Where virtue wants, and vice abounds, | and wealth is but a
> > baited hook
> Wherewith men swallow down the bane | before on danger dark
> > they look.

§ 441. *Verses formed upon the Third Measure, or*
$a\;x\;x$. — Verses formed upon measure $a\,x\,x$ are neither

frequent nor regular. Generally there is the deficiency of some unaccented syllable, in which the formula is reduced to $a\ x\ x$ —, which may be confounded with the first measure, or $a\ x$. The point to determine is, whether the *general* character of the verse is trisyllabic or dissyllabic.

1. Two measures. Formulas $a\ x\ x \times 2$, and $a\ x\ x \times 2$ —. Of these the latter is most common. Not only one of the unaccented syllables, but even both of them are frequently wanting at the end of lines.

> Píbroch o' Dónuil Dhu!
>   Píbroch o' Dónuil!
> Wáke thy shrill voíce anew,
>   Súmmon Clan Cónnuil.
> Cóme away, cóme away,
>   Hárk to the súmmons!
> Cóme in your wár array,
>   Géntles and cómmons. —
> Cóme ev'ry híll-plaid, and
>   Trúe heart that wéars one;
> Cóme ev'ry steél blade, and
>   Stróng hand that beárs one. —
> Leáve the deer, leáve the steer,
>   Leáve nets and bárges:
> Cóme with your fíghting-gear,
>   Broádswords and tárges.
> Cóme as the wínds come, when
>   Fórests are rénded;
> Cóme as the wáves come, when
>   Návies are stránded;
> Fáster come, fáster come,
>   Fáster and fáster,
> Chiéf, vassal, páge, and groom,
>   Ténant aud máster.
> Fást they come, fást they come,
>   Sée how they gáther!

Wíde waves the eágle plume,
  Blénded with heáther.
Cást your plaids, dráw your blades,
  Fórward each mán set !
Píbroch of Dónuil Dhu,
  Knéll for the ónset. — SCOTT.

Whére shall the lóver rest,
  Whóm the Fates séver
Fróm his true maíden's breast,
  Párted for éver ?
Whére, through gróves deép and high,
  Sóunds the far bíllow ;
Whére early víolets die
  U'nder the wíllow. — SCOTT.

O'ft have I seén the sun,
  To do her hónor,
Fíx himself át his noon
  Tó look upón her,
A'nd hath gilt év'ry grove,
  E'v'ry hill neár her,
Wíth his flames fróm above,
  Stríving to cheér her.
A'nd when she fróm his sight
  Háth herself túrned,
Hé, as it hád been night,
  I'n clouds hath moúrned. — DRAYTON.

2. Three measures.   Formulas $a\ x\ x \times 3$, and $a\ x\ x$
$\times 3$ —.

  Peáce to thee, ísle of the ócean,
    Peáce to thy breézes and bíllows ! — BYRON.

3. Four measures.   Formulas $a\ x\ x\ x \times 4$, and $a\ x\ x$
$\times 4$ —.

  Mérrily, mérrily sháll I live nów,
  U'nder the blóssom that hángs on the boúgh.
                                SHAKESPEARE.

1.

Wárriors or chiéfs, should the sháft or the swórd
Piérce me in leáding the hóst of the Lórd,
Heéd not the córpse, though a kíng's, in your páth,
Búry your steél in the bósoms of Gáth.

2.

Thóu, who art beáring my buckler and bów,
Should the soldiers of Saul look away from the foe,
Láy me that móment in bloód at thy feét,
Mine be the doóm that they dáre not to meét.

3.

Fárewell to óthers, but néver we párt,
Heir to my róyalty, són of my heárt ;
Bríght be the diadem, boúndless the swáy,
Or kíngly the deáth that awaíts us to-day. — BYRON.

§ 442. *Verses formed upon the Fourth Measure*, or
x a x. — Verses of a single measure are equivocal,
since *x a x* cannot be distinguished from *x a* $+$; whilst
x a x — is identical in form with *x a.* The general
character of the verses in the neighborhood determines
whether measures of this sort shall be looked upon as
dissyllabic or trisyllabic.

1. Two measures. Formulas *x a x* $\times$ 2, and *x a x*
$\times$ 2 —.

Besíde her are laíd
Her máttock and spáde —
Alóne she is thére,
Her shoúlders are báre —
E'ver alóne
She máketh her moán. — TENNYSON.

But vaínly thou wárrest ;
For thís is alóne in
Thy pówer to déclare,
That, in the dim fórest,
Thou heárd'st a low moáning. — COLERIDGE.

The bláck bands came óver
　　The A'lps and their snów;
With Boúrbon, the róver,
　　They pássed the broad Pó.
We [have] beáten all foémen,
　　We [have] cáptured a kíng,
We [have] túrned back on nó men,
　　And só let us síng,
" The Boúrbon for éver !
　　Though pénniless áll.
We 'll [have] óne more endeávor
　　At yónder old wáll.
With [the] Boúrbon we 'll gáther
　　At dáy-dawn befóre
The gátes, and togéther
　　Or breák or climb ó'er
The wáll : on the ládder
　　As moúnts each firm foót,
Our shoút shall be gládder,
　　[And] death ónly be múte. —
The Boúrbon ! the Boúrbon !
　　Sans coúntry or hóme,
We 'll fóllow the Boúrbon
　　To plúnder old Róme." — BYRON.

2. Three measures. Formulas $x\,a\,x \times 3$, and $x\,a\,x$
$\times 3$ —.

I 've foúnd out a gíft for my faír;
　　I 've foúnd where the woód-pigeons breéd:
But lét me that plúnder forbeár;
　　She 'll sáy 't was a bárbarous deéd.

He né'er could be trúe, she avérred,
　　Who [would] rób a poor bírd of its yóung;
[And] I lóved her the móre when I heárd
　　Such ténderness fáll from her tóngue. — SHENSTONE.

A cónquest how hárd and how glórious ;
　　Though fáte had fast boúnd her,
　　With Stýx nine times roúnd her,
Yet músic and lóve were victórious. — POPE.

3. Four measures. Formulas $x\,a\,x \times 4$, and $x\,a\,x \times 4$ —.

The wórld will not chánge, and her heárt will not breák.

<div align="right">TENNYSON.</div>

Remémber the glóries of Brían the bráve. — MOORE.

O, húsh thee, my bábie, thy síre was a kníght,
Thy móther a lády both lóvely and bríght:
The woóds and the gléns and the tówers which we seé,
They áll are belónging, dear bábie, to theé. — SCOTT.

I ask not the pleasures that riches supply,
My sabre must win what the weaker must buy:
[It] shall win the fair bride with her long, flowing hair,
And many a maid from her mother shall tear.
I love the fair face of the maid in her youth,
[Her] caresses shall lull me, her music shall soothe.
[Let] her bring to my chamber the many-toned lyre,
And sing me a song on the fall of her sire. — BYRON.

O, yoúng Lochinvár is come óut of the wést:
Through áll the wide bórder his steéds are the bést;
And, sáve his good broádsword, he weápons had nóne,
He róde all unármed, and he róde all alóne.
So faíthful in lóve, and so gállant in wár,
[Did] ye e'ér hear of bridegroom like yoúng Lochinvár?

<div align="right">SCOTT.</div>

[Thanks,] my Lórd, for your vén'son; for fíner nor fátter
Ne'er ránged in the fórest nor smóked on the plátter:
The flésh was a pícture for paínters to stúdy,
The fát was so white, and the leán was so rúddy.
[Though] my stómach was shárp, I could scárce help regrétting
To spoil such a délicate pícture by eáting. — GOLDSMITH.

§ 443. *Verses Formed upon the Fifth Measure, or* x x a.

1. Formula *x x a.*

> As ye sweép
> Through the deép. — CAMPBELL.

For practical purposes, a pair of lines of this formula
is dealt with as if it constituted a single verse.

> As ye sweép, through the deép.

2. Formula *x x a* × 2.

> In my ráge shall be seén
> The revénge of a queén. — ADDISON.

> See the snákes that they reár,
> How they híss in the aír! — DRYDEN.

3. Formula *x x a* × 3.

> And the spárkles that flásh from their éyes! — DRYDEN.

Lines of these two formulas are intermixed; as,

> See the snákes that they reár,
> How they híss in the aír,
> And the spárkles that flásh from their éyes!
>   DRYDEN.

4. Formula *x x a* × 4.

> And the king seized a flámbeau with zeál to destróy.
>   DRYDEN.

There is generally an intermixture of measures, *x x a*
and *x a x*, in lines of this formula; since the omission
of a single syllable will convert

> *x x a*   *x x a*   *x x a*   *x x a*

into

> *x a x*   *x a x*   *x a x*   *x a*,

as may be seen by separating the measures differently.

1.

The Assýrian came dówn like a wólf on the fóld,
And his cóhorts were gleáming in púrple and góld:
And the sheén of the speárs was like stárs on the séa,
When the blúe wave rolls níghtly on deép Galileé.

2.

Like the leáves of the fórest when súmmer is greén,
That hóst with their bánners at súnset were seén:
Like the leáves of the fórest when aútumn is blówn,
That hóst on the mórrow lay wíthered and strówn.

3.

For the A'ngel of Deáth spread his wíngs on the blást,
And breáthed in the fáce of the fóe as he pássed;
And the éyes of the sleépers waxed deádly and chíll,
And their heárts but once heáved, and for éver grew still.

4.

And thére lay the steéd with his nóstril all wíde;
But thróugh it there rólled not the breáth of his príde
And the foám of his gásping lay whíte on the túrf,
And cóld as the spráy of the róck-beating súrf.

5.

And thére lay the ríder distórted and pále,
With the déw on his brów, and the rúst on his maíl;
And the ténts were all sílent, the bánners alóne,
The lánces unlífted, the trúmpet unblówn.

And the wídows of A'shur are loúd in their waíl,
And the ídols are bróke in the témple of Báal,
And the míght of the Géntile, unsmóte by the swórd,
Hath mélted like snów in the glánce of the Lórd.—Byron.

5. Formula $x\ x\ a \times 5$.   Rare, if occurring at all.
6. Formula $x\ x\ a \times 6$.   Rare, if occurring at all.
7. Formula $x\ x\ a \times 7$.   Lines of this sort, when they

occur, are to be looked upon as consisting of two lines reduced to a single verse by the omission of the rhyme.

> Now he róde on the wáves of the wíde-rolling séa | and he fóraged aróund like a háwk.

§ 444. Lines or verses grouped together constitute stanzas, couplets, triplets. It is only a few of the English metres that are known by fixed names. These are as follows : —

1. *Gay's Stanza.* — Lines of three measures, *x a*, with alternate rhymes. The odd (i. e. the 1st and 3d) rhymes double.

> 'T was when the seas were roaring
>   With hollow blasts of wind,
> A damsel lay deploring,
>   All on a rock reclined.

2. *Common Octosyllabics.* (§ 437. 4.) — Four measures, *x a*, with rhyme, and (unless the rhymes be double) eight syllables (*octo syllabæ*). — Butler's " Hudibras," Scott's poems, " The Giaour," and other poems of Lord Byron.

3. *Elegiac Octosyllabics.* — Same as the last, except that the rhymes are regularly alternate, and the verses arranged in stanzas.

> And on her lover's arm she leant,
>   And round her waist she felt it fold,
> And far across the hills they went,
>   In that new world which now is old:
> Across the hills and far away,
>   Beyond their utmost purple rim,
> And deep into the dying day
>   The happy princess followed him. — TENNYSON.

4. *Octosyllabic Triplets.* — Three rhymes in succession. Generally arranged as stanzas.

> I blest them, and they wandered on ;
> I spoke, but answer came there none :
> The dull and bitter voice was gone. — TENNYSON.

5. *Blank Verse.* — Five measures, *x a*, without rhyme. "Paradise Lost," Young's "Night Thoughts," Cowper's "Task."

6. *Heroic Couplets.* — Five measures, *x a*, with pairs of rhymes. Chaucer, Denham, Dryden, Waller, Pope, Goldsmith, Cowper, Byron, Moore, Shelley, &c. This is the common metre for narrative, didactic, and descriptive poetry.

7. *Heroic Triplets.* — Five measures, *x a*. Three rhymes in succession. Arranged in stanzas. This metre is sometimes interposed among heroic couplets.

8. *Elegiacs.* — Five measures, *x a ;* with regularly alternate rhymes, and arranged in stanzas.

> The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
> The lowing herds wind slowly o'er the lea,
> The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
> And leaves the world to darkness and to me. — GRAY.

9. *Rhymes Royal.* — Seven lines of heroics, with the last two rhymes in succession, and the first five recurring at intervals.

> This Troilus, in gift of curtesie,
> With hauk on hond, and with a huge rout
> Of knightes, rode, and did her company,
> Passing all through the valley far about ;
> And further would have ridden out of doubt.
> Full faine and woe was him to gone so sone ;
> But turn he must, and it was eke to doen. — CHAUCER.

This metre was common with the writers of the earlier part of Queen Elizabeth's reign. It admits of varieties, according to the distribution of the first five rhymes.

10. *Ottava Rima.* — A metre with an Italian name, and borrowed from Italy, where it is used generally for narrative poetry. The "Morgante Maggiore" of Pulci, the "Orlando Innamorato" of Bojardo, the "Orlando Furioso" of Ariosto, the "Gierusalemme Liberata" of Tasso, are all written in this metre. Besides this, the two chief epics of Spain and Portugal respectively (the "Araucana" and the "Lusiados") are thus composed. Hence it is a form of poetry which is Continental rather than English, and naturalized rather than indigenous. The stanza consists of eight lines of heroics, the first six rhyming alternately, the last two in succession.

> Arrived there, a prodigious noise he hears,
>   Which suddenly along the forest spread ;
> Whereat from out his quiver he prepares
>   An arrow for his bow, and lifts his head ;
> And, lo ! a monstrous herd of swine appears,
>   And onward rushes with tempestuous tread,
> And to the fountain's brink precisely pours,
> So that the giant's joined by all the boars.
>   *Morgante Maggiore* (LORD BYRON's *Translation*).

11. *Terza Rima.* — Like the last, borrowed both in name and nature from the Italian, and scarcely yet naturalized in England.

> The Spirit of the fervent days of old,
>   When words were things that came to pass, and Thought
>   Flashed o'er the future, bidding men behold
>   Their children's children's doom already brought

Forth from the abyss of Time which is to be,
The Chaos of events where lie half-wrought
Shapes that must undergo mortality :
What the great seers of Israel wore within,
That Spirit was on them and is on me ;
And if, Cassandra-like, amidst the din
Of conflicts, none will hear, or hearing heed
This voice from out the Wilderness, the sin
Be theirs, and my own feelings be my meed,
The only guerdon I have ever known.

12. *Alexandrines.* — Six measures, x a, generally (perhaps always) with rhyme. The name is said to be taken from the fact, that early romances upon the deeds of Alexander of Macedon, of great popularity, were written in this metre. One of the longest poems in the English language is in Alexandrines, namely, Drayton's "Poly-olbion," quoted in § 440. 6.

13. *Spenserian Stanza.* — A stanza consisting of nine lines, the first eight heroics, the last an Alexandrine.

It hath been through all ages ever seen,
That with the prize of arms and chivalrie
The prize of beauty still hath joined been,
And that for reason's special privitie ;
For either doth on other much rely.
For he meseems most fit the fair to serve
That can her best defend from villanie ;
And she most fit his service doth deserve
That fairest is, and from her faith will never swerve.
                                        SPENSER.

" Childe Harold " and other celebrated poems are composed in the Spenserian stanza.

14. *Service Metre.* — Couplets of seven measures, x a. This is the common metre of the Psalm versions. It is also called Common Measure, or Long Measure.

15 *

(See § 440. 7.) In this metre there is always a pause after the fourth measure, and many grammarians consider that with that pause the line ends. According to this view, the service metre does not consist of two long lines with seven measures each; but of four short ones, with four and three measures each alternately. The Psalm versions are printed so as to exhibit this pause or break.

The Lord descended from above, | and bowed the heavens most
    high,
And underneath his feet he cast | the darkness of the sky.
On cherubs and on seraphim | full royally he rode,
And on the wings of mighty winds | came flying all abroad.
                    STERNHOLD AND HOPKINS.

In this matter the following distinction is convenient. When the last syllable of the fourth measure (i. e. the eighth syllable in the line) in the one verse *rhymes* with the corresponding syllable in the other, the long verse should be looked upon as broken up into two short ones; in other words, the couplets should be dealt with as a stanza. Where there is no rhyme except at the seventh measure, the verse should remain undivided. Thus,

Turn, gentle hermit of the glen, | and guide thy lonely way
To where yon taper cheers the vale | with hospitable ray —

constitute a single couplet of two lines, the number of rhymes being two. But,

        Turn, gentle hermit of the dale
          And guide thy lonely way
        To where yon taper cheers the vale
          With hospitable ray. — GOLDSMITH.

constitute a stanza of four lines, the number of rhymes being four.

15. *Ballad Stanza.* — Service metre broken up in the way just indicated. Goldsmith's " Edwin and Angelina," &c.

16. *Poulterer's Measure.* — Alexandrines and service metre alternately. Found in the poetry of Henry the Eighth's time.

No other amongst the numerous English metres have hitherto received names.

§ 445. *Licenses.* — It rarely happens that, even in the most regular metres, the same measure is exclusively adhered to throughout.   Instead of

> There cómes the squáll, more bláck than níght,
>   Before the Adrian gale, —

the author writes,

> There cómes the squáll, *blácker* than níght,
>   Before the Adrian gale. — MACAULAY.

substituting *a x* for *x a*, and giving variety to his verse.

Again, in the following line from Marlow, we find *a x* in the place of *x a*.

> *Týrants* swim sáfest ín a púrple floód.

By referring to some of the previous examples, the reader will find that in several quotations certain syllables are inclosed in brackets [ ]. All these were supernumerary syllables, admitted by a certain allowable latitude, and constituting Metrical Licenses. Sometimes the substitution of one measure for another is a matter of necessity; sometimes it is done intentionally, for the sake of avoiding monotony. In this latter case it is an ornamental license. The numerous forms of

metrical license are best learned by practice upon a variety of metres, the works of different authors.

§ 446. *Symmetrical Metres.* — Allowing for the in- difference of the number of syllables in the last meas- ure, it is evident that, in all lines where the measures are dissyllabic, the syllables will be a multiple of the accents, i. e. they will be twice as numerous. Hence, with three accents there are six syllables, with four accents eight syllables, &c.

Similarly, in all lines where the measures are trisyl- labic the syllables will also be multiples of the accents, i. e. they will be thrice as numerous. Hence, with three accents there will be nine syllables, with four ac- cents twelve syllables, and with seven accents twenty- one syllables.

Lines of this sort may be called symmetrical.

§ 447. *Unsymmetrical Metre.* — Lines where the syl- lables are *not* a multiple of the accents may be called Unsymmetrical. Occasional specimens of such lines occur (as may be seen from several of the examples already quoted) interspersed amongst others of sym- metrical character. Where this occurs, the general character of the versification may be considered as symmetrical also.

The case, however, is different where the whole character of the versification is unsymmetrical, as it is in the greater part of Coleridge's "Christabell" and Byron's "Siege of Corinth."

> In the yéar since Jésus diéd for mén,
> Eíghteen húndred yeárs and tén,
> Wé were a gállant cómpaný,
> Ríding o'er lánd and sáiling o'er séa.
> O', but wé went mérrilý !

> We fórded the ríver, and clómb the high híll,
> Néver our steéds for a dáy stood stíll.
> Whéther we láy in the cáve or the shéd,
> Our sleép fell sóft on the hárdest béd ;
> Whéther we cóuched on our róugh capóte,
> Or the róugher plánk of our glíding bóat;
> Or strétched on the beách, or our sáddles spréad
> As a píllow beneáth the résting héad,
> Frésh we wóke upón the mórrow.
> A'll our thóughts and wórds had scópe,
> Wé had héalth and wé had hópe,
> Tóil and trável, bút no sórrow.

These lines are naturally trisyllabic; from any meas-
ure of which one of the unaccented syllables may be
ejected. Where they are symmetrical they are so by
accident. A metrical fiction, that conveniently illus-
trates their structure, is the doctrine that they are *lines
formed upon measure x a x, for which either x x a or
a x x may be substituted, and from which either a x or
x a may be formed by ejection of either the first or last
unaccented syllable.*

§ 448. *Convertible Metres.* — Such a line as

> Ere her faithless sons betrayed her

may be read in two ways. We may either lay full
stress upon the word *ere*, and read,

> E're her faíthless sóns betráyed her ;

or we may lay little or no stress upon either *ere* or *her*,
reserving the full accentuation for the syllable *faith* in
faithless, in which case the reading would be,

> Ere her faíthless sóns betráyed her.

Lines of this sort may be called examples of *converti-*

ble metres, since by changing the accent a dissyllabic
line may be converted into one partially trisyllabic, and
vice versâ.

This property of convertibility is explained by the
fact of accentuation being *a relative quality.* In the
example before us *ere* is sufficiently strongly accented
to stand in contrast to *her*, but it is not sufficiently
strongly accented to stand upon a par with the *faith* in
faithless, if decidedly pronounced.

The real character of convertible lines is determined
from the character of the lines with which they are as-
sociated. That the second mode of reading the line in
question is the proper one, may be shown by reference
to the stanza wherein it occurs : —

> Let E'rin remémber her dáys of óld,
> Ere her faíthless sóns betráyed her,
> When Málachi wóre the cóllar of góld,
> Which he wón from the próud inváder.

Again, such a line as

> For the glory I have lost,

although it may be read,

> For the glóry I' have lóst,

would be read improperly. The stanza wherein it oc-
curs is essentially dissyllabic (*a x*)

> Heéd, O, heéd my fátal stóry!
> I' am Hósier's injured ghóst,
> Cóme to seék for fáme and glóry, —
> Fór the glóry I' have lóst.

§ 449. *Metrical and Grammatical Combinations.* —
Words, or parts of words, that are combined as meas-

ures, are words, or parts of words, combined *metrically*, or in *metrical combination*.

Syllables combined as words, or words combined as portions of a sentence, are syllables and words *grammatically combined*, or in *grammatical combination*.

The syllables *ere her faith-* form a metrical combination.

The words *her faithless sons* form a grammatical combination.

When the syllables contained in the same measure (or connected metrically) are also contained in the same construction (or connected grammatically), the metrical and the grammatical combinations coincide. Such is the case with the line

Remémber | the glóries | of Brían | the Bráve;

where the same division separates both the measure and the subdivisions of the sense, inasmuch as the word *the* is connected with the word *glories* equally in grammar and in metre, in syntax and in prosody. So is *of* with *Brian*, and *the* with *Brave*.

Contrast with this such a line as

A chieftain to the Highlands bound.

Here the metrical division is one thing, the grammatical division another, and there is no coincidence.

Metrical,

A chíef | tain tó | the Hígh | lands bóund.

Grammatical,

A chieftain | to the Highlands | bound.

In the following stanza the coincidence of the metrical and grammatical combination is nearly complete : —

> To árms! to árms!   The sérfs, they róam
>   O'ér híll, and dále, and glén :
> The kíng is deád, and tíme is cóme
>   To choóse a chíef agáin.

In

> Wárriors or chiéfs, should the sháft or the swórd
> Piérce me in leáding the hóst of the Lórd,
> Heéd not the córpse, though a kíng's, in your páth,
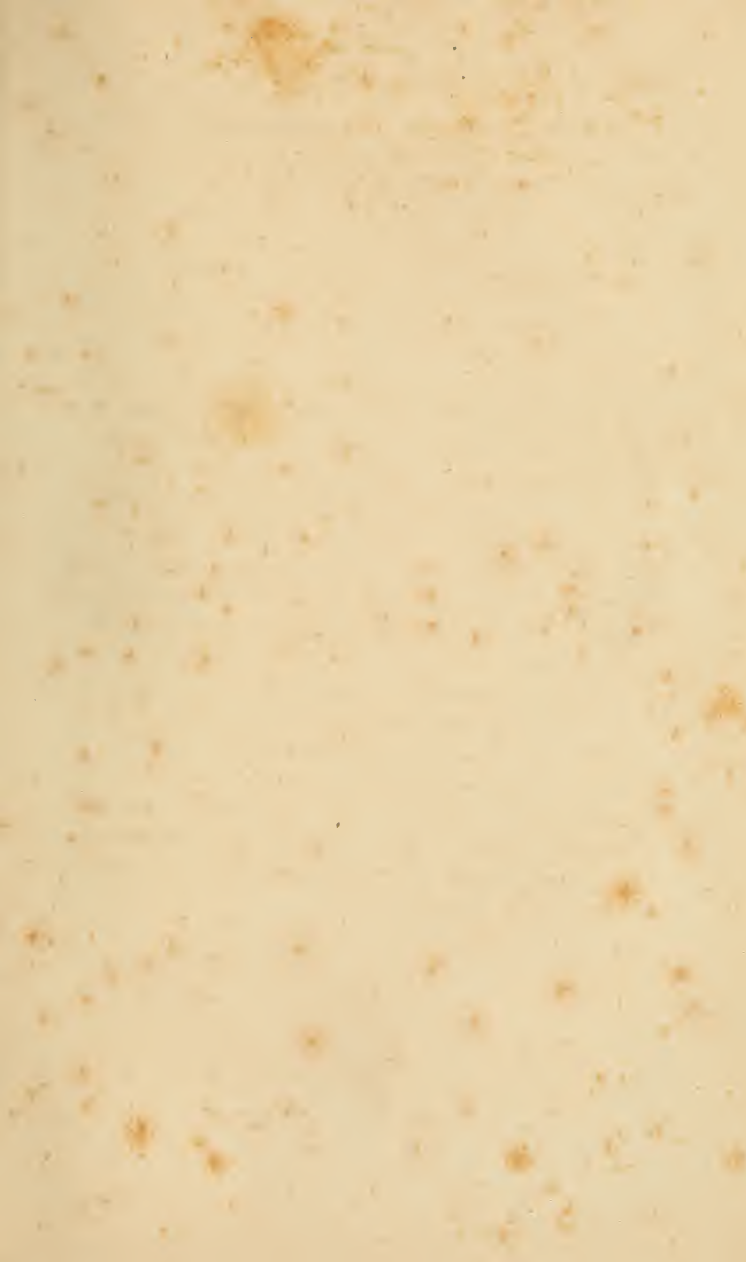> Búry your steél in the bósoms of Gáth. — BYRON.

there is a non-coincidence equally complete.

§ 450. *Rhythm.* — The character of a metre is marked and prominent in proportion as the metrical and the grammatical combinations coincide.   The extent to which the measure *a x x* is the basis of the stanza last quoted is concealed by the antagonism of the metre and the construction.   If it were not for the axiom, that *every metre is to be considered uniform until there is proof to the contrary*, the lines might be divided thus : —

$$a\ x,\ x\ a,\ x\ x\ a,\ x\ x\ a,$$
$$a\ x,\ x\ a\ x,\ x\ a\ x,\ x\ a,$$
$$a\ x,\ x\ a,\ x\ x\ a,\ x\ x\ a,$$
$$a\ x,\ x\ a\ x,\ x\ a\ x,\ x\ a.$$

The variety which arises in versification from the different degrees of the coincidence and non-coincidence between the metrical and grammatical combinations may be called *Rhythm.*

THE END.